DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 038 529 VT 010 800

TITLE	Strategies for Meeting Correctional Training and Manpower Needs, Four Developmental Projects.
INSTITUTION	Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. Office of Law Enforcement Assistance.
PUB DATE	Jun 68
NOTE	291p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Dissemination Office, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. 20537
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$1.25 HC-$14.65
DESCRIPTORS	Change Agents, *Corrective Institutions, Guidelines, *In Service Education, Laboratory Training, *Manpower Development, Manpower Needs, Practicums, Research Projects, Rural Areas, *Staff Improvement, Teaching Techniques

ABSTRACT

The Law Enforcement Education Act of 1965 has placed special emphasis on projects involving training and utilization of correctional manpower. The four representative projects reported here give a comprehensive view of the problems of upgrading correctional staff and possible solutions to those problems: (1) "The Developmental Laboratory for Correctional Training," used a series of university based institutes to train trainers and middle management personnel in techniques and teaching concepts not currently used in corrections, (2) "Rural Correctional Staff as Agents of Community Change," provides materials to assist trainers in planning and implementing staff training programs, and discusses rural characteristics and implications for training in detail, (3) "Targets for In-Service Training," describes a seminar which related definitions, concepts, and methods to the development of in-service training programs by correctional agencies, and (4) "Manpower for Correctional Rehabilitation in the South," reports a conference which examined regional correctional manpower needs and assessed present and potential training resources. (CD)

ED0 38529

c1

DISSEMINATION DOCUMENT—GRANTS 041, 124, 172, AND 062

LEAA

Grants and Contracts

OFFICE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE • WASHINGTON, D.C.

STRATEGIES FOR MEETING CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER NEEDS

Four Developmental Projects

VT010830

ED038529

LEAA DISSEMINATION DOCUMENT

STRATEGIES FOR MEETING CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER NEEDS -- FOUR DEVELOPMENTAL PROJECTS

* * *

Southern Illinois University
Developmental Training Laboratory

Lane Human Resources, Inc., Curriculum
Development for Rural Corrections Staff

Joint Commission Seminar on In-Service
Training Needs in the Corrections Field

Southern Regional Education Board Institute on
Meeting Correctional Manpower Needs in the South

* * *

Project Reports Submitted to

Office of Law Enforcement Assistance,
United States Department of Justice

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

These projects were supported by funds awarded by the Attorney General under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965: Grant #041 to the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections, Southern Illinois University; Grant #124 to the Lane County Youth Study Board, Eugene, Oregon; Grant #172 to the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, Washington, D.C.; and Grant #062 to the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Georgia. Persons undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment, findings, and conclusions. Therefore, points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent the official position or policy of the U.S. Department of Justice.

PREFACE

One of the most widely recognized problems in the field of corrections today is the critical need for trained personnel. As the President's Crime Commission noted, "Changing Corrections into a system with significantly increased power to reduce recidivism and prevent recruitment into criminal careers will require, above all else, a sufficient number of qualified staff to perform the many tasks to be done."*

How is this need to be met? Where and how are the required skills and knowledge to be obtained? The establishment of in-service training programs -- and the improvement of existing training programs -- emerge as practical answers to these needs.

The total corrections picture has been a major area of concern under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 (LEAA). Special emphasis, however, has been placed on projects involving training and utilization of correctional manpower. Training can be a force for change in organizational structure and in individual role behavior.

The four projects reported in this document are representative examples of LEAA-supported efforts in this area. All four projects share the basic goal of developing effective ways and means to upgrade correctional staffs. Together they provide a comprehensive view of the problems. What's more, they offer possible solutions: strategies and techniques that can change concepts into realities throughout the correctional system.

Developmental Laboratory for Correctional Training - Grant 041

Supported by a $189,236 LEAA grant, Southern Illinois University's Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections sought to improve the quality of in-service training through a university-based series of institutes. Designed to train trainers, the institutes presented a wide variety of educational techniques and teaching concepts not currently used in corrections. In addition to training officers, the Project's target group included middle management level personnel -- a group often overlooked in training but whose support is crucial in any effort to strengthen staff training programs. Both participating groups were drawn from correctional institutions and systems in the Midwest. (Two states outside this region -- Tennessee and Virginia --were invited to fill openings caused by cancellations.)

---

*p. 93, Task Force Report: Corrections, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967.

The program for trainers consisted of nine weeks on the SIU campus. Six weeks were devoted to training in relevant content from social and behavioral sciences, educational theory and teaching methods, and instruction in development of teaching aids (including visual aids). Following this period, trainers engaged in a two-week practice teaching effort with a group of relatively inexperienced correctional officers recruited from participating state institutions and systems. Middle management personnel were involved in a series of one-week institutes and joined the trainers in the final week of their program.

A crucial test of the institutes' effectiveness came with field follow-up to determine whether content and teaching techniques had been incorporated in prison training programs. Although the follow-up is not complete at this date, measurable impact on training has been observed.

In response to field-expressed needs, LEAA funds were made available to finance a national institute series.* Approximately 40 state correctional systems were represented.

The SIU project also served as a training vehicle for graduate students, who were assigned as assistants to the Center staff. Many of these students are now employed by correctional agencies as a direct result of their work on the project.

Rural Correctional Staff as Agents of Community Change - Grant 124

In this project, financed by an LEAA grant of $8,727, the Lane County Youth Study Board (Oregon) addressed itself to the particular training needs and problems found in the rural, community-based correctional setting. A recipient of grants from HEW's Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development for the past four years, the Board brought to the project experience in the area of training and insight into the special nature of rural corrections.

The project's objective was development of materials which would assist trainers in planning and implementing staff training programs. In carrying out its work, the grantee found that the unique characteristics of the rural correctional staff and the small rural community had significant implications for training. In less populated areas of the country, for example, persons working in corrections tend to have a wide diversity of background and experience. They are less likely to have been exposed to previous training programs within the correctional setting. Because of its small size, the rural correctional staff may not have an experienced training officer; some member of the staff may be given responsibility for training as well as his regular duties. The tightly-knit fabric of the rural social system also has an effect on rural corrections.

---

* Grants 241 and 317, totaling $209,800 and involving three training institutes.

The final report which makes up the second section of this publication discusses these factors in detail and contains an excellent description of the entire project. Tested methods and techniques that identify training needs as well as strategies for the implementation of training programs are also included. It is presented here as a potentially valuable source of ideas for correctional institution administrators in rural and small-city regions.

Targets for In-Service Training - Grant 172

The third section of this document describes a seminar convened in Washington, D.C., by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. The meetings brought together knowledgeable people from both government and industry to discuss the most effective methods of in-service training for correctional staff. The idea behind the seminar was not to develop specific content for training programs, but rather to provide general principles and guidelines.

Specifically, the seminar explored in-service training as a concept. How industry and public service have defined in-service training -- and adapted training concepts and methods to their particular organizational structures -- was also considered. Finally, these definitions, concepts, and methods were related to the development of in-service training programs by correctional agencies.

The seminar's non-parochial approach to correctional training problems was particularly noteworthy. It provided a valuable impetus toward increased awareness of industry's progress in the development of training programs -- expertise that can and should be utilized in the field of corrections.

Manpower for Correctional Rehabilitation in the South - Grant 062

The second conference reported herein was conducted by the Mental Health Unit of the Southern Regional Education Board. One of the first regional cooperatives, SREB was established in 1948 to stimulate and improve higher education and mental health training and research in the region. The fifteen states served by SREB are: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia.

The Institute on Meeting Manpower Needs for Correctional Rehabilitation in the South represents SREB's first effort in the field of criminal justice. Approximately 125 persons from the above-mentioned states, met to examine the region's correctional manpower needs and to assess present and potential training resources to meet these needs now and in the future. A wide range of job functions and disciplines were represented, including state-level directors of adult and juvenile corrections, state directors of probation, state directors of probation, state directors of vocational rehabilitation, mental health professionals working in corrections, and faculty members from colleges and universities which offer correctional training programs. Encouragingly, several states are following up on ideas and suggestions exchanged at the conference. North Carolina, for example, now holds regular strategy meetings with governmental department and academic department heads. The Texas Department of Corrections now includes a vocational rehabilitation staff.

* * *

As of June 19, 1968, more than $3.2 million had been awarded for correctional projects under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. In addition to sponsoring individual correctional training programs, the LEAA program has provided support for comprehensive statewide in-service training programs through a series of special grants. To date, more than 26 states have received LEAA special grants for this purpose.

Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
U.S. Department of Justice

June 1968

INTERIM REPORT

DEVELOPMENTAL LABORATORY FOR CORRECTIONAL TRAINING

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
GRANT NO. 041

JOINTLY SPONSORED AND FINANCED BY THE:

OFFICE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE,
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

AND

THE CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF CRIME,
DELINQUENCY, AND CORRECTIONS

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CARBONDALE, ILLINOIS

FOREWORD

The following report describes the experiences of a university-based teaching and research center that has directed a considerable portion of its personnel and resources to the solution of problems associated with a strategy most useful for bringing about change in corrections, that of in-service training. Although much correctional experience and hence, empirical knowledge, was present on and needed by the University staff, the major goal of the Training-Development Laboratory was to bridge the gulf that was found to exist between the behavioral sciences and practice in the correctional field. In addition, the prospective training officers were exposed to a wide variety of educational technologies and teaching techniques not commonly used in correctional settings.

The objectives of the strategy were simple:

--To give the correctional trainer a substantive framework of knowledge from which to assess current trends in corrections.

--To provide intensive training in learning principles, human behavior, communication procedures, and teaching techniques and technology.

--To afford practice in teaching under supervision using the knowledge and tools thus gained.

--To demonstrate to the newly prepared training officers and their management executives how training effectively carried out could become a tool for management in the processes associated with changing correctional practice.

Communications skill and staff development through interpersonal relationships became a major focus of the training institutes. Dr. John Grenfell's creative application of the video-tape technique to the teaching situation and the development of the training officer's interpersonal skills was certainly a highlight of the first year's experience.

In the following pages, facts and perspectives are presented on the formulation and implementation of a scheme to transform these purposes into reality.

This is a story of a government agency recognizing an opportunity to make a lasting contribution to correctional reform through reliance on the fundamental principle that any organization is only as effective as the people who conduct its affairs at the lowest level of its personnel. The Office of Law Enforcement Assistance provided the financial support which made possible the transformation of an idea into an actuality.

This is the story of prison executives who demonstrated a willingness to invest the energy of their personnel in the proposition that prison conditions can be improved. Without their commitment to the principles and objectives of this project, the accomplishments would have been impossible. The wide range of prison systems giving this firm support is practical evidence of the unprecedented receptivity of correctional executives to new ideas and strategies. The active participation of the training officers in the laboratory activities is further evidence that inertia and complacency are no longer characteristic of American correctional institution.

This is the story of a university geared to learn as well as teach. In human terms, the dynamics of the project are found in the interaction between two sets of individuals; first, employees drawn to our campus from a wide variety of prisons distributed throughout the United States, and second, university personnel drawn from several academic disciplines but united in a common concern for the problems of the field of correction. The university personnel came out from "behind their desks" to join the correctional employees in a joint pursuit of the means of overcoming the practical problems of in-service training. They risked the uncertainties of applying theories directly to problems their "students" faced every day. Familiar concepts and educational strategies had to be adjusted on the spot. The results well justified the risk. Both the "teachers" and the "pupils" learned in the discourse that ensued.

Dr. Grenfell played a yeoman role in directing the first pilot institute and proved the ability of a university-based staff to come to grips with field problems. Following this pilot institute, Dr. Grenfell undertook to follow-up and evaluate these efforts during the second year which began in August, 1967. A substantial portion of this evaluation is reported in the following document.

Mr. Robert Brooks is directing the second year's training effort of three institutes and has further developed and organized the training officer's curriculum. All of these efforts have been characterized by innovation, dedication, hard work, and a real disposition on the part of all concerned to succeed in promoting greater use of scientific knowledge for the effective resocialization of offenders. We have been revitalized by this experience, encouraged by our evaluation of initial results, and emboldened to say that we have proved the vital relationship between the university and the field of practice.

Charles V. Matthews, Director
CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF CRIME,
DELINQUENCY, AND CORRECTIONS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD

CHAPTER I - Pre-Planning and Staff Development 1

- Introduction 1
- Planning 2

CHAPTER II - Rationale and Pilot Programs 6

- Data Collection 6
- Curriculum Planning 13
- Pilot Programs 17

CHAPTER III - The Institute 23

- Participants 23
- The First Six Weeks 25
- Student Teaching 28
- Middle Management Institute 31
- Training Techniques 32
- Related Activities 44

CHAPTER IV - Evaluation 46

CHAPTER V - Follow-Up 53

CHAPTER VI - Current Status 60

APPENDIX I - LEA Staff
APPENDIX II - LEA Participants - Training Officers
APPENDIX III - LEA Institute Schedule
APPENDIX IV - LEA Participants - Correctional Officers
APPENDIX V - Correctional Officers Program
APPENDIX VI - LEA Participants - Middle Management
APPENDIX VII - Middle Management Program

CHAPTER I

PRE-PLANNING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

For a number of years leaders in the field of corrections have stated that one of the most demanding problems in the field has been that of training or, more specifically, lack of adequate training for staff. Research has indicated that minimal training is carried on in the field of corrections and this tends to be concentrated in orientation or pre-service areas. One of these studies (conducted by the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections at Southern Illinois University) found that, not only was there little formal training in the field of corrections, but less than 25% of the correctional agencies had full-time training officers. This research completed in 1964 was replicated in 1966 with the same results. It concluded that, despite the recommendations of many authorities in the field that more training was needed, negligible increase in training activities had occurred.

This dearth of training is not solely the result of a lack of financial support. Another critical factor is extreme difficulty in finding staff who know how or what to teach. This problem is further compounded by the fact that few institutions of higher education have included in their curriculum courses which are practical and pertinent to correctional personnel. Recognizing this severe problem, the Department of Justice under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act funded a Training and Development Laboratory at Southern Illinois University. The purpose of this project was to develop and test curriculum materials which might be used in the field of corrections. The purpose of the effort was to train appropriate staff in correctional institutions to be teachers and managers of training programs.

PLANNING

To structure the curriculum planning, Center staff decided that the program would emphasize three general areas:

1. The history of corrections with an emphasis on the changing role of the correctional officer.
2. Knowledge from the behavioral sciences regarding learning and human behavior and the application of this knowledge to the effective training of the correctional officer.
3. Teaching techniques with an emphasis on how to teach effectively and the use of audio-visual materials to supplement the teaching programs.

The core staff of the project was recruited with these three substantive areas as a guide. The core staff of the project was recruited from across the nation. Charles V. Matthews, Director of the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections served as Administrative Director of the Project. Dr. John Grenfell was recruited as Project Director. Dr. Grenfell, Associate Professor of Educational

Psychology, designed the teaching techniques, and curriculum and supervised the work of the following staff in the areas indicated.

Henry Burns, M.A. - Correctional Education

James Hughes, Ph.D. - Sociology, Correctional Administration

Thomas Murton, M.A. - Criminology, History of Corrections

Harold Stephan, M.S.W. - Behavioral Sciences

The Center entered into an agreement with the Communication Media Service of the University to develop audio-visual materials and teaching aids that would be replicable in the correctional field.

This staff would be supplemented by a number of people from the University at large and the regular Center staff. Of particular assistance was Mr. Robert Brooks, who had served as a sociologist at the Menard Prison and had long been involved in training programs for prison staff, who would discuss teaching aids. Mr. Leon Jansyn, a doctoral student in sociology, would handle the evaluation process. Dr. John Twomey would be responsible for some sessions on communication and mental health. Dr. Twomey had a half-time appointment with the Center and with the Rehabilitation Institute. Finally, Dr. Johnson, Professor of Sociology and Assistant Director of the Center, would be called on to assist in areas regarding prison social structure. Dr. Johnson is a sociologist who was Assistant Director of the North Carolina Prison Department and is the author of many publications dealing with corrections.

To support the activities of the above named Center staff, ten graduate students were assigned from a variety of disciplines. The purpose in recruiting these students from a variety of areas was twofold: 1) to serve the function of introducing to correction training personnel diverse information to which they might not have been previously exposed and 2) to recruit graduate students to the field of corrections. Graduate students were drawn from the Rehabilitation Institute, Sociology, History, Education, Recreation, Design and Psychology.

These personnel were supplemented by University personnel and consultants. Dr. Arthur Prell, Director of the Business Research Bureau, discussed problems related to organizational change and the role of training. Mr. Harold Grosowsky, Co-Chairman of the Design Department, discussed creative thinking with an emphasis on looking at old problems in a new light. Dr. Richard Sanders, of the Rehabilitation Institute, discussed behavior modification, reinforcement and their potential for the field of corrections. Dr. George Mayer of Educational Psychology discussed the importance of appropriate models in the learning process. Dr. Richard Thomas of the Community Development Institute discussed agency relations and the need for cooperation.

Outside consultants included Doctors Schaef and Denny of the St. Louis State Hospital for the area of role-playing. Both are regarded as outstanding authorities in this area. Mr. William Pierran and Mr. John O'Neil were former prisoners who presented the inmate view of the correctional officer. Dr. Ben Frank of the Joint Manpower Commission and Mr. Milton Rector of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency both reviewed current problems and the future of corrections. Mr. Francis Neilson of the Berkshire Farm for Boys discussed the use and development of audio-tapes and the use of community resources. Mr. Kerry Rice, M.S.W., University of Louisville, presented material he developed for the Kentucky Department of Corrections relating to the history of corrections.

The staff and consultants composed a wide range of experience and professional training. It was necessary to mobilize these intellectual talents into an effective scheme for strengthening in-service training of correctional agencies. The next chapter centers attention on the formulation of such a scheme.

CHAPTER II

RATIONALE AND PILOT PROGRAMS

DATA COLLECTION

When Southern Illinois University first submitted a training proposal to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, it was planned that the content of a training program should fall under three general areas: 1) a conceptual framework; 2) teaching and learning; and 3) the use of instructional materials. Covered in the first area should be material from the behavioral sciences, particularly sociology, psychology, and management, which was to be incorporated in the history of corrections and the changing role of the correctional officer. The second area was to cover some of the teaching techniques which appear to be effective in working with adults, while the third area was to introduce training officers to the wide range of audio-visual materials which are available to supplement educational programs.

When the staff was recruited, the first set of tasks involved development of the specifics of the curriculum for the training institute. A major premise was that the curriculum should build on the training programs which did exist in some of the prison systems. This policy would have certain advantages in that unnecessary duplication would be avoided. Participants would be more likely to be receptive to instructors who demonstrated knowledge of the nature of existing programs in the prison systems. A greater "payoff" for the institute would accrue if the existing in-service training program could be used as a basis for improving training quality and introducing new goals. New ideas would be more likely to be integrated into a program if instructors presented them within the context of current prison operations.

Questionnaires were sent to prison systems asking for information regarding the content of their training programs. These questionnaires were forwarded to approximately forty states with replies being received from twenty-five. A compilation of the data indicated that training programs ran from three to four weeks, although half of the four week training programs involved two weeks of on-the-line experience. About eighty per cent of the training program was generally taken up with custody and security procedures such as the use of fire arms, self-defense, fire drill, etc. The other twenty per cent was assigned to administrative detail, rules and regulations with some attention given to mental health and guidance.

In addition to determining the content of existing training programs, the staff was involved in recruiting graduate students to assist in the developmental phase of the program. Considerable correspondence was carried on with the seventeen mid-western states to recruit participants for the initial nine-week institute. The recruiting effort required that three of the staff - Dr. Grenfell, Mr. Murton, and Mr. Stephan - visit the prison systems. As an extra dividend for the visits, the staff members were able to supplement the information gained from the questionnaires. They were able to gain a sensitivity for the unique traditions and emotional climate of the prisons from which the participants were to come. It was also felt to be desirable that informal evaluations of training programs in the field be obtained, with an emphasis on attempting to determine the present impact of training programs on personnel.

Before listing the major impressions gained by staff on these visits it should be noted that most existing deficiencies were not really the responsibility of either the training officers or the current prison administration. In fact, the LEA institute constitutes recognition of the vital function of the training of training officers as a form of intervention to break the cycle in the transmission of outmoded traditions and practices. Traditions handed down from one administration to the next are reinforced by a lack of funds for evaluation and staff development and a general lack of support by higher education for prison training and research. Prison staff, and particularly training officers, simply had no place to go to learn new ideas, techniques, methods, and curriculum development. The new training officer was simply taken in tow by the experienced man, and an accumulation of experiences passed on in a short period of time.

The term "training officer" is used rather loosely because most systems did not have full-time training officers. Rather the training person was an experienced correctional officer whose education was usually limited to high school plus several years of prison experience. When one considers the deficiencies involved in the background of the training officers, it is remarkable that the training officers were as effective as they were. Essentially, they had had no background in the preparation of lecture materials, in the use of visual aids, in recruiting resource personnel, or any previous experiences in how to teach.

The questionnaires and visits revealed practices which could be taken into consideration in planning the nine-week training program:

1. There was a general emphasis on the security and custody aspects of training. Most training programs had not considered the inclusion of other kinds of materials. When questioned about this, training

persons were not sure how and where they would get the personnel to assist in areas other than security and custody.

2. In discussing training with prison personnel, usually over coffee or lunch, Center staff were impressed with the rather neutral, almost negative attitude that most personnel held toward training. Staff seemed to feel that their most important training came from contact with "the experienced officers in the institution."

3. Training officers frequently felt that they had little impact on trainees, and frequently bemoaned this fact to visiting staff. They perceived themselves and their program as being ineffective and receiving only superficial support from both administration and institution staff. They cited examples where trainees made little or no effort to prepare and frequently slept through training sessions. The training officers felt that the personnel situation was so critical that the administration would not do anything to "drop a dud". Training officers felt that it might be helpful to them and assist trainee motivation if the training officer could participate in trainee evaluation and have the evaluation seriously considered by the administration. However, most felt that the administration would not go along with them (in discussing this topic with the prison administrators, it was found that the opposite was true. Few had thought about using training officers for evaluating staff, particularly new staff, and most seemed genuinely interested in planning for such an evaluation)

4. A tremendous gulf was found to exist between various units of the institution. There was a tendency for large sub-groups to form not only among inmates, but also among prison staff. It became apparent that there was little crossing of lines of communication between custodial staff, professional staff, and administrative staff. Generally teachers stayed with teachers, treatment staff with treatment staff, administrators with administrators, and security

staff stayed by themselves. This breakdown was further complicated by another which involved the cell blocks, where officers in the same cell block tended to stay together. While this may be a natural phenomenon, and has certainly been observed in hospitals and schools, little effort was made to break it down or increase communication between the various sub-groups and Center staff concluded that this isolation contributed to a feeling that institution staff were doing time along with inmates.

5. This isolation also seemed to exist for the overall prison community. There seemed to be almost no dialogue established between the prison and other agencies at either the community or the state level. Of course there were some exceptions, but generally speaking the many service agencies and the prison tended to be isolated from each other. In some cases this was due to misunderstandings of the past, where service agencies had little understanding of the needs of prison security personnel, and became overly critical of prison programs causing a defensive reaction on the part of prison staff, who in turn made personnel from service agencies feel unwelcome. In addition service agency staff and prison agencies were frequently unable to communicate in that they frequently "talked a different language." This appeared to be particularly true in a number of cases where staff from local universities attempted to participate in prison programs. Frequently, university staff had a goal in mind but failed to make sure that prison staff understood what they were trying to do. The resulting situation was frequently chaotic and eventually caused the institution to place obstacles in the way of visitors so that they no longer felt welcome.

6. Staff generally held pessimistic attitudes toward inmates: inmates were no good, could not be trusted and institution programs would not affect change. Staff seemed to have little faith in rehabilitation and yet had little awareness that a program of strict custody, supplemented by work, had not been successful in preventing recidivism in the past.

7. Coupled with this pessimism was a prevalent attitude that staff should become isolated from inmates. All contacts should be very formal. Staff frequently acted as though inmates were not physically present. This indifference toward inmates caused inmates to feel that staff had no concern for their well-being or rehabilitation. It is not uncommon to hear staff refer to departing inmates as "returning soon". The statements are frequently made in the presence of inmates and may establish an expectation for failure within the ex-inmate.

8. There appeared to be a climate of mistrust in many institutions. This mistrust not only existed between staff and inmates but also among staff. Security staff were frequently suspicious of what treatment staff was trying to do, and when the administration made a request, various staff levels within the institution were "wondering why they wanted that done and for what purpose". (When Center staff video-taped discussions with institution staff, a common question was "Who's going to see it?".)

9. Interviewing staff regarding problem incidents within the institution indicated that a number of incidents were provoked by the way staff handled inmates and this frequently led to attacks on staff, other inmates, or property.

10. It was often found that a number of staff had become quite lax in security and custody procedures, which in itself led to serious problems within the institution.

11. Generally speaking, most states had an orientation period for new staff. Very few states had in-service training for experienced staff. Where in-service training did exist, there was frequently little understanding on the part of staff as to how this in-service training would be useful or beneficial to staff in their work.

Thus the Center staff decided that if the training officer were to be more effective and make a contribution to the institutional program, the training officer would have to work at:

1. Attempting to teach in a stimulating manner, to capture the interest of trainees.

2. Introducing new material from the behavioral sciences to show staff:
   A) How they frequently cause problems either in the way they handle inmates or in the way they become lax in performing their jobs;
   B) The impact, both positive and negative, that security staff have on inmates;
   C) That existing programs which have been carried on over the last 50 years had not worked, and alternatives must be tried;
   D) The potential increase in prison population over the next 10 and 20 years would necessitate new methods of prevention, security, treatment and rehabilitation.

3. Demonstrating to all staff that training may offer a means toward overcoming the communication barriers and the climate of mistrust currently existing within the institution. Most personnel within the institution are aware of the communication barriers and the climate of mistrust but were unsure of how to remedy the situation or even unsure of how to start to discuss it.

4. Incorporating in the curriculum intensive work in the area of communication, attitudes, and values.

CURRICULUM PLANNING

Thus the staff began work on the specific curriculum for the nine-week staff training officer's institute. The nine weeks were divided into three separate sections, training curriculum, student teaching and administrative support. The first section of six weeks was to be devoted to the specific needs of the training officer. The seventh and eighth weeks were to be the student teaching experience with responsibility for planning given to the training officers. It was felt that this would be a useful exercise in planning either orientation or in-service training and learning skills in planning joint endeavors with others. The staff would provide the consultant resources for the training officers but the training officers would have freedom in determining program content and use of supplementary audio-visual aids and resource materials. In order that the training officers might adequately prepare for this experience, two laboratory sessions a week would be set aside whereby training officers could experiment with designing audio-visual materials, both for use in the two-week experience as well as for use at the home institution. Time was also necessary for the development of lesson plans.

The third segment was to be a joint effort of training officers and Center staff to plan a one-week middle management program. Most of the staff effort was expended in the first segment. Staff had primarily a consultant and supervisory role in the second and third segments.

Staff felt that it was important to communicate to training officers and other prison personnel that the Center recognized the need for good custody and security procedures and that the purpose of this program was to supplement their existing program with pertinent material from the behavioral sciences. By demonstrating appreciation of the importance of custodial tasks, the Center hoped to avoid excessive concern among trainees in defending the custodial perspective. Otherwise, security personnel would spend so much time defending their position that Center staff would be unable to establish a communication bridge and the necessary rapport to allow for a conducive climate to encourage learning in other important areas. In keeping with this objective, the curriculum was designed to bear on the areas of attitudes, values, and communication in a fashion conducive to making unit facts intelligible to training officers within the context of their own experiences.

Study of existing training programs indicated that much of the material of a factual nature was presented strictly on a lecture basis, with demonstrations being reserved to the areas of handling inmates, self-defense and related security concerns. To promote communication, alternatives to the lecture method were sought. It was agreed that factual material was necessary and the lecture presentation could probably not be eliminated from the program but with certain exceptions all lecture material would be limited to an hour and a half. After a formal presentation the group of training officers would be divided into two groups in order to discuss the material presented. The discussion leaders, who were to be Center staff, would concentrate on discussion of factual material and the values employed in various interpretations of the facts. It would be their responsibility to relate the material to training and the field of correction. When appropriate they would function as the devil's advocate to reveal the value conflicts existing in the issues and problems presented. One consequence would be that participants would become aware of their own value systems.

To strengthen this group discussion area, two days would be devoted to role playing techniques consisting of a variety of exercises to demonstrate to each man how others reacted to him and how he interacted in a variety of situations. If this was to be a meaningful learning experience for the training officers, the role playing would have to come early in the program. It was decided to include it in the first week. To reinforce this experience, wherever possible, video tape would be used to enable the participant to witness on a television screen his behavior and others reactions to it.

It was hoped that through the use of lecture and discussion the training officers could be taught how to demonstrate to others that differing value systems and attitudes could impede interaction, how to ask questions related to the lecture topics, how to relate seemingly non-pertinent material (ex. social class) to corrections and how to effectively lead group discussion.

The first six weeks would include a blend of didactic material, training techniques and development of self-awareness.

The formal material would try to move from one general area to another in an effort to keep content tied together. Exceptions would have to be made when guest lecturers could not fit into the schedule at the appropriate time. To follow this format, the first two weeks emphasized the history of corrections, the changing role of the correctional officer and group dynamics. The third week covered group dynamics, communication and class structure. The fourth week involved communication, behavior and mental health. The fifth and sixth week centered on prison programs and teaching techniques.

PILOT PROGRAMS

At the recommendation of the Department of Justice, several pre-training institute programs were to be held. The first was a one-day program in October in which prison administrators were given a sample of the nine-week program for training officers. Invitations were sent to the directors of the seventeen mid-western states and thirteen directors or their representatives attended. Presented at this meeting were the general ideas regarding the curriculum and the teaching techniques to be used. A demonstration was given regarding the use of videotape in teaching. Staff attempted to elicit from administrators some criticism about the program. Administrators expressed enthusiasm about the program and the curriculum format. Their suggestions for changes were exclusively in terms of administrative details. There was a concern that two different kinds of training officers would be in attendance. Some states were sending central office training officers who were really co-ordinators while other states were sending a training officer from an institution. Another concern dealt with the differing educational backgrounds of participants. Those in central office positions were likely to have a college degree while those coming from institutions may only have a high school education. A third concern was the selection of training officers. Administrators wanted to select their own men and not delegate this responsibility to the University. A fourth concern related to the competence of training officers. While most of the curriculum material was interesting and could be useful, administrators tended to feel that either it was material that the training officer could not teach or that their staff would not accept. This last could be summarized with a feeling of, "Gee, that's great, but they'll never go for it." However, administrators unanimously encouraged the Center to go on with the planned program and indicated their willingness to support it back in the institution.

In addition to the one-day workshop for administrators, there were three week-long workshops to be held away from the University campus. These workshops were to be geared for middle management and the curriculum was to be presented in more depth than was presented to the administrators. The reactions of the middle management personnel were also to be elicited concerning whether the material was worthwhile; what kinds of changes should be made before the program started; and what kind of support might training officers receive from middle management when they returned to the institution with this kind of information and with intentions to implement changes in training.

The first of these workshops was held in January in Lawrence, Kansas. Representatives were in attendance from Kansas, Iowa, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Nebraska. The second was held at Indianapolis, Indiana, and although Kentucky and Tennessee were invited to participate, only representatives from Indiana were in attendance. The third program was held at Joliet, Illinois. At both the Indiana and Illinois programs, there were representatives from most of the institutions in the state. In each of these programs, written evaluations were requested. The evaluations were favorable. The major criticism was that the presentation should have expanded more of the topics. This comment did not recognize the fact that the brief workshop was a capsule of a nine-week program. The second reaction was that the ideas presented at the workshops were good but that the wardens or the directors would never accept them.

Time and again, Center staff were made aware of this dichotomy--representatives of two levels of an organizational status hierarchy feeling something should be done to improve certain conditions, each of the groups contending the other level would not support the particular strategy of reform. Cited above was the example of administration and correctional officers, both feeling the proposed curriculum was good and both thinking the other would not accept the concepts. This attitude was manifest in a number of areas. To name a few, administrators and security staff would voice the desire for dialogue on custody procedures. Recognizing that executives did not directly experience security problems, the administration would solicit from security staff recommendations for improvement. Meanwhile, the security staff internally discusses ways of improving the custody routine but does not pass suggestions "up the line" in response to the invitation of the administration. Seemingly, neither area is able to "make connection" with the other--but both express dissatisfaction with what they perceive as the other's truculence.

Similar breakdowns in communication exist between other organizational segments of the institution, including education, treatment, security, industry, and top-level administration. Needless to say, the phenomena has a depressing effect on morale.

The situation offers opportunities to inmates who are skillful in playing one group of officials against another group to achieve inmate purposes.

This communication gap and the climate of mistrust is not restricted to prisons. In discussing this problem, Center staff with previous work experience in other settings cited examples occurring in schools, industry, the military services and governmental agencies. However, the staff felt the issue must be confronted and training officers taught to confront it.

The approach adopted was to be one of inculcating a greater sense of acceptance. That is, if either or both sides express a desire or willingness to accept change or be responsive to suggestions, everyone must act on the assumption that the other party is sincere in seeking reform.

The attitude of acceptance is the exact opposite of the traditional negativism which labels as "window dressing" the stated support for reform expressed by other parties. First, training officers had to learn to listen, then to be accepting and encouraging in discourse with other parties. In the course of this learning of new attitudes, the training officers must acquire a capacity to distinguish between his values and the ultimate purposes a particular prison program is intended to achieve. Finally, the officer should develop a willingness to accept as sincere the other party's professed support for desired changes. Such willingness opens the way to a set of interactions among the parties to carry out a program of reform in a realistic fashion.

CHAPTER III

THE INSTITUTE

PARTICIPANTS

Representatives of the Governors' Midwest Conference Region were eligible to participate in the nine-week program. States in this Governors' Midwest Conference Region included Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Ohio and Kentucky. (Appendix II) Thus, there were eighteen positions available for a total of seventeen states. South Dakota reported an inability to participate because of budgetary restrictions. With only thirty-five employees on the entire staff in the prison system, Arkansas declined the invitation to participate because of the insufficiency of custodial personnel to be trained. Missouri decided their present training program was sufficient. Although not included in the Governors' Midwest Conference Region, several states, (notably Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, and New Jersey) contacted the Department of Justice and Southern Illinois University to determine whether they could be included. Tennessee was invited to fill an opening. A last minute cancellation by Louisiana allowed Virginia to participate.

The training officers represented a diverse group. (Table I)

TABLE I

TRAINING OFFICER STATISTICS (N=17)

AREA	MEAN	RANGE
Age	38	25-49
Years in Corrections	4.4	1-10
Married	All	
Children	1.8	1-5
Salary	$557	$290-$1070

In terms of education, two participants had the G.E.D. high school equivalency. Seven had completed college including one with a Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology. Of the ten with a high school diploma or its equivalent, only two had any college work. Of the seventeen, four had had no experience in supervising inmates while ten had some full-time inmate supervision experience. Eight had no experience in supervising employees.

As evidence of its support for this program, Southern Illinois University leased a three-story dormitory for the Center. One floor of the dormitory was to be used for the housing of long term (9 week) participants, one floor for Center staff offices, and one floor for graduate students and laboratory activities. Two large rooms (20 x 50 ft.) had been designed for dining room and living room. These were converted into classroom spaces. Thus, the entire program was self-contained within a single building.

Participants were encouraged, but not required, to live in the dormitory. Thirteen of the seventeen participants decided to live in the dormitory with two to a room. This was about the only way that the $75 stipend could be stretched to cover living expenses.

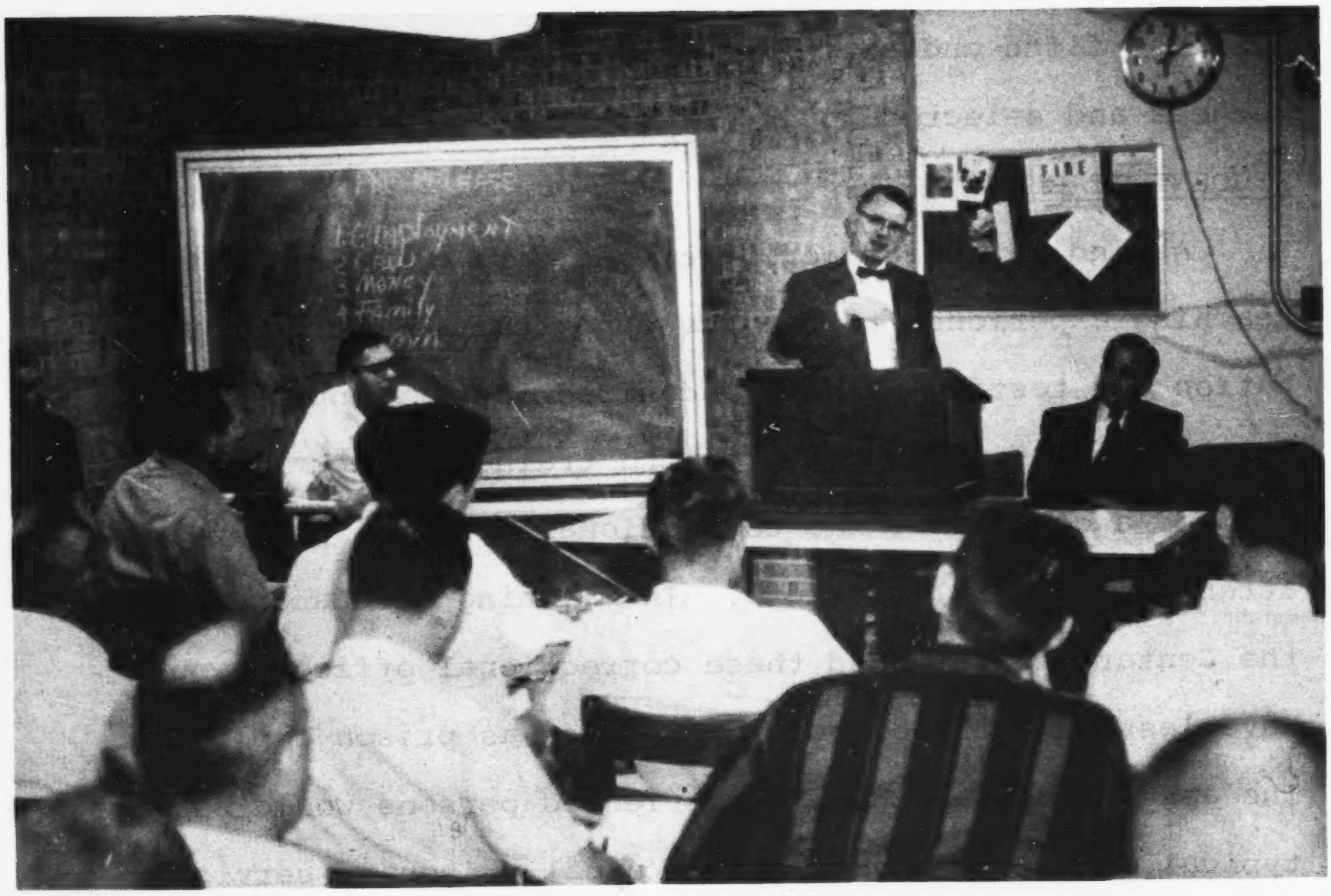
THE FIRST SIX WEEKS

The first week was intended to establish a pattern for the program, to introduce the participants to the variety of topics that they would be exposed to during the first six weeks and to direct the participants' attention toward their own student teaching experience which was to take place six weeks hence. The student teaching experience involved the participants in the selection of topics for presentation to a group of correctional officers who would be brought to the Center to serve as students for the trainees. The topics were chosen from the larger number of topics presented during the first six weeks of the program. In the selection of topics, the Center staff avoided security and custody matters for several reasons. First, few university personnel are schooled in custody techniques. Second, these techniques tend to vary from state to state and even institution to institution. Third, and most important of all, the Center staff felt that the participants must be directed toward the teaching of unfamiliar material to increase their confidence in handling topics not currently included in in-service training of correctional agencies. This last reason was most appropriate to the long-term purpose of the project and most meaningful for accruing learning benefits for the participants. At the end of the student teaching, participants expressed the opinion that this deliberate emphasis on teaching of unfamiliar materials had overcome their reluctance to experiment in their own training programs. The complete schedule, as distributed to training officers, is found in Appendix III.

The first week of the program involved an orientation to the total program, testing, tours of the facilities of SIU in Carbondale, an introduction to teaching techniques (particularly to the use of audio-visual equipment), and lectures on the evolution of prison systems. Tours of the federal penitentiary at Marion and the Illinois penitentiary at Vienna, Illinois, included critiques in joint session with institution staff. Friday and Saturday of the first week were taken up with role playing and group dynamics sessions conducted by consultants from the St. Louis State Hospital.

The second week concentrated on the history of corrections, the changing role of the correctional officer and group dynamics. The inclusion of group dynamics served as a carryover of the first week (role playing) and an introduction to one of the main themes of the program -- the influence of groups on individual behavior.

The third week dealt with social class, group structure and communication. Emphasized in this section was how membership in groups affected behavior, learning, attitudes, perception and communication.



Picture No. 1

A demonstration of the use of consultants as Dr. Johnson, SIU and Mr. Rector, NCCD, discuss community correctional programs.

The fourth week concerned correctional programs for both staff and inmates. This topic directed attention toward innovative programs meriting further study by training officers as a source of demand for in-service training. Many of the persons needed to staff innovative programs would have to come from the ranks of existing correctional personnel.

Training officers could play a significant role in preparing staff for entry into such programs.

The fifth and sixth weeks were devoted to instructional methods and selected topics of interest to corrections.

STUDENT TEACHING

As indicated earlier, trainees were given student teaching experience to provide opportunities for experimentation and testing of newly acquired instructional skills. To provide a student body for the trainees, each state was allowed a quota of three correctional officers who would attend a two-week institute. In planning the Laboratory, the Center had intended these correctional officers would have less than three years experience as prison employees. The assumption was that inexperienced persons would be more typical of the classes found in usual prison in-service training programs. Furthermore, it was the feeling of Center staff that training officers would be more comfortable dealing with less experienced personnel. In actual practice, however, administrators preferred to send more experienced men with the idea that many of the experienced personnel would benefit from the curriculum, particularly in terms of presentations on the importance of staff attitudes in dealing with inmates. Table II demonstrates that the correctional officers, on the average, had had more experience as prison employees than had the training officers. The two groups were about the same in terms of age.

TABLE II

CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS (N=43)

AREA	MEAN	RANGE
Age	37	25-59
Years in Corrections	4.4	1-18
Married	39 Yes	4 No
Children	2.2	0-9
Salary	$532	$240-$752

The educational level of the correctional officers was much less than that of the training officers. Two had less than an eighth grade education, six had completed some high school, twenty-one had graduated from high school while fourteen had some college. Of the forty-three, nine had no experience in supervision of employees and twelve occasional experience. Twenty-two were full-time supervisors. Two correctional officers were also training officers at their home institutions.

Initially the student teacher situation was complicated by the relative status of trainees and correctional officers in terms of experience and age. There was some hostility toward the idea of being taught by their peers. Much of this hostility dissipated by the end of the first day as the line officers recognized the novelty of the lesson topics and the competency of the student teachers. Two correctional officers continued to be hostile. One of them attempted to disrupt the training sessions. Training officers met with staff to consider means of handling this hostility which is apt to occur in their own training programs. Staff conducted a video-taped sensitivity session with four correctional officers including the one who was causing the difficulty. The training officers and the other thirty-nine correction officers observed the session. This process will be described in detail in the section on training techniques. Essentially, group discussion of the four officers was video-taped. The discussion was followed by a play-back of the tape. Staff stopped the tape at critical incidents to question the discussants about their behavior and reactions, to indicate group process and communication patterns, and to cause participants to explain and justify their behavior as it appeared on the television screen. At the end of the session the dissident officer approached staff to explain that this had been one of the most valuable experiences in his life. He stated he had not been aware of how hostile and negative he was and that he hoped to be able to return to the nine-week program. He also expressed these views to his immediate supervisor who visited the Center as a middle management representative.

The correctional officers were required to keep daily logs to record their appraisal of each of the learning experiences of the day. They were asked to offer constructive criticism of the instructor, his techniques, and their receptivity to the topic. Generally the diaries were very positive. The seventeen training officers demonstrated competence in presenting material, in conducting demonstrations, in preparing the supplementary audio-visual materials, in integrating this material within formal presentations, and in making the presentation pertinent to institution job requirements. On their return to their home states, several of the training officers wrote unsolicited positive reports to their directors. Copies of these letters were shown to Center staff on follow-up visits. The sincerity of these testimonials is suggested by the fact that copies were not sent to the Center.

MIDDLE MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

The final week was a combined institute for training officers and middle management. Training officers discussed with management some of the newly-learned techniques they hoped to implement in their home state. Discussions centered around the purchase of equipment and materials and inclusion of new curriculum in training. Comments were elicited from middle management regarding what kinds of problems they anticipated when this material was inserted in the present prison program. Training officers were concerned over the support they might expect from management. Generally speaking, the response from management was favorable. Training officers were reminded of the "communication gap" and encouraged to act on the favorable response and not their projected perceptions.

In addition, two nationally known figures were scheduled for presentations. Dr. Ben Frank of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training spent the day talking about the present state of corrections and made some projections regarding the future. Mr. Francis Neilson of the Berkshire Farm for Boys demonstrated his use of taped vignettes in a training program and also spent considerable time discussing community-agency relations. Mr. Neilson related experiences in soliciting commercial radio and television stations to engage in cooperative efforts with agencies. He also described the recruitment of volunteers and service agencies to participate in institution programs.

Generally the middle management program was well received. Several executives expressed a preference for a tighter scheduling of their relatively brief time at the Center, including evening programs. Another minority opinion was that less emphasis should be placed on the interaction between training officers, staff and middle management regarding the acceptance of new ideas and increased support of training programs by the correctional agency when the training officers return home.

TRAINING TECHNIQUES

A variety of training techniques were effective in the implementation of additional content within their own training programs. Because of the differing circumstances for training in the several states, trainers would differ in their selection among the techniques. The number of techniques taught permitted flexibility in such selection. In the brief period of nine weeks it would be impossible for the training officer to become skillful in a wide variety of approaches to training. However, through the selective process the training officer could become comfortable with several techniques which could serve as alternatives to the usual lecture approach. At the very least it was felt that all the training officers could be taught how to lead group discussion and effectively use resource persons. Training officers could be instilled with the need to orient himself and his class in the consultant's topic to enhance the effectiveness of his appearance. Trainers should be able to learn some additional techniques to improve the effectiveness of training.

It was decided to concentrate on the following techniques:

1. lecture
2. films
3. group discussion
4. slide presentations
5. role playing
6. audio tape
7. video tape.

Training officers were encouraged to develop their own visual aids. The philosophy of the Center was that this should be a "hands on" experience. Wherever possible, training officers should develop their own materials and experiment with a variety of teaching techniques themselves, rather than just see staff

Picture No. II

Training officers working with visual design materials.

perform. One reason for this is due to the sparsity of training aids in the field of corrections and training officers will have to develop their own in the field.

With this in mind the Center organized two laboratories where training officers could experiment with audio-visual materials. Included was the planning of posters and bulletins to announce training programs and to convey conceptual ideas to trainees, making transparencies for overhead projectors, taking pictures with a 35mm camera for slides, and using pictures and models to supplement lecture materials. The training officers were encouraged to incorporate different and eye-catching designs, particularly with bulletins and posters. It was demonstrated that in order to use these visuals it was not required that the training officer be an artist. He could sketch the ideas and the sketches were usually found to be adequate to cover the topic. Alternatively, he could rely on staff or inmates in the arts and crafts shop within the institution (and most institutions have either sign painting or arts and crafts) and recruit their assistance to illustrate the visuals.

The lecture technique was used most frequently, both in the LEA institute and in existing training at prisons. Most instruction tends to be of a passive nature, that is the trainee sits in a room and absorbs material. Yet educational psychologists report that, as a general rule, students will remember

20% of what they hear, 50% of what they see, and 80% of what they do. The lecture is a valuable means of reaching large groups, but, to capture and hold the attention of the audience, the lecture should be supplemented with visual aids. If the lecture involved an institution activity each student should be given the opportunity to go through the activity. For example, the lecture might deal with shaking down an inmate or a cell. After the formal presentation, the class should be taken into the institution to shake down inmates and cells at random. If the presentation deals with the handling of firearms, then each trainee should handle the firearms, both in terms of shooting the weapon, as well as its maintenance, cleaning, and safety. If one is talking about security in the institution, photographs or objects can be exhibited on incidents where security had been broached within that particular institution. Other attention-getting devices for lectures would be newspaper clippings, photographs, and stories by experienced staff regarding attempted escapes, attacks on staff and inmates, and weapons and keys which inmates have manufactured.

A number of training programs currently use films. Generally the films are shown to a class, the training officer follows the presentation asking "Are there any questions?",and the class is dismissed or goes on to the next topic. Training officers were shown more effective use of films through preview, selection of important themes or highlights, and a drafting of questions around these key issues. Before the film is shown, a class should be briefly oriented concerning reasons the film is being shown and the important themes the class should expect to see in the film. At the film's completion, the training officer leads a discussion and asks questions regarding the film presentation and its application to corrections.

Southern Illinois University has an extensive film library, including 40 to 50 films pertinent to the field of corrections. These films were shown two nights a week to all training officers to familiarize them with the variety of films available to the field. The sessions served to demonstrate the use of discussion techniques. The success of this phase of the Institute is suggested by sharp increase in demand for these films. Before the Institute our Center staff borrowed them from the University film library. Since the Institute has been completed the films must be booked several weeks or months in advance because they are now being distributed all over the country. In addition a number of training officers with extensive programs are purchasing those films they thought most useful to their program.

The discussion group was another technique which received intensive use in the first institute. Its purpose was to get as much involvement as possible among training officers in each and every topic. It was also planned to demonstrate the effectiveness of assignment of topic discussion responsibility as a means of keeping students alert. This technique can be used to demonstrate to the training officer that the trainees have grasped the material being presented and are aware that the material has some relation to the job situation. Finally, the discussion group is one of the easiest places for the trainee to expose his attitudes and biases which in turn gives the training officer the opportunity to work in this crucial area.

The use of 35 mm slides in training programs was demonstrated. This technique has been adopted by several of the participants. When an in-service training class cannot visit all of the institutions in the given state, the training officer can photograph the institutions, activities of particular interest, and organize a slide presentation giving the trainee the feeling of being a part of a state-wide organization. Training officers also recommended the presentation of a picture of the commissioner and governor in the welcome for each class. These pictures could be accompanied by a tape recorded welcome by both the governor and the commissioner. Training officers were shown how slides could be made from photographs in magazines and books to be incorporated in a lecture on the history of corrections or related to current issues.

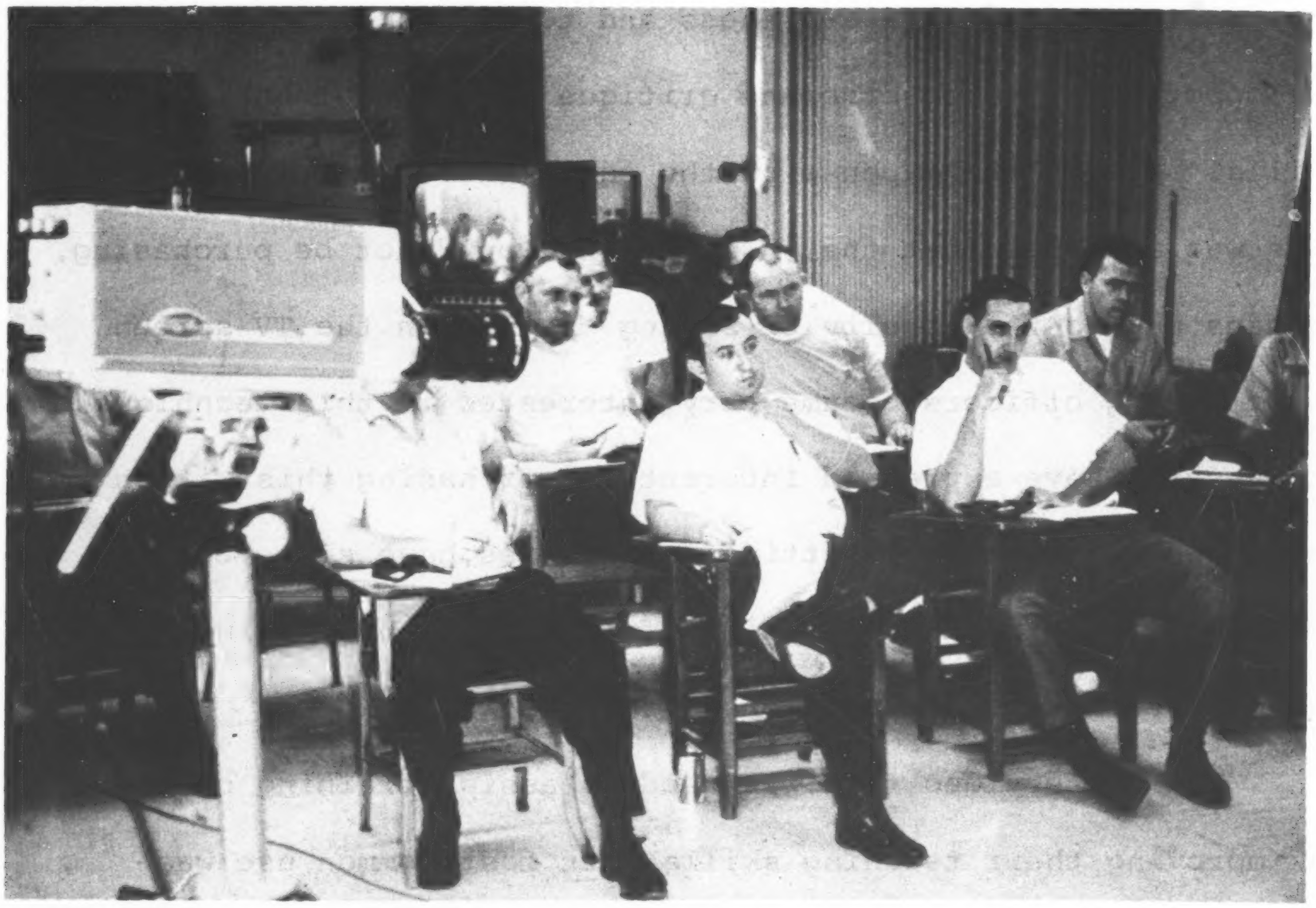
The general objective of the Institute was to encourage training officers to get involved in as many "doing" teaching techniques as possible. This not only involved the trainees themselves shaking down inmates but also involved role-playing to give the trainees practice in handling situations which arise recurrently within the institutions. While role-playing may also be designed to display the trainees' personal interaction with a focus on interpersonal skills, attitudes and values, it can also have the effect of giving the trainee practice in handling unpleasant situations and making on-the-spot decisions. The training officers were encouraged to design role-playing incidents involving situations which had occurred in their own institution setting. To avoid unnecessary confusion, correctional officers in training should be assigned correctional officer roles and an experienced staff person or possibly an inmate should be assigned inmate roles. The person playing the inmate role would be prompted to cause an incident around some topic, then to "play it by ear" responding to the correctional officers' reactions. The training officer and the class would observe, analyze the correctional officer's behavior and explain alternatives. Thus the role-playing participants received feedback (informational observations) from the group involving their behavior in the situation, the probable results of the behavior, and alternative ways of handling the situation.

Role-reversal is a related technique particularly useful in an exploration of attitudes and values. For example, the correctional officer plays the role of an inmate and an inmate plays the role of a correctional officer. Role-reversal is also helpful in supervisors' training by having a supervisor reverse roles with a subordinate, playing out a critical incident and engaging in a feedback session. The role-playing was extremely popular among the training officers. Several employed role-playing during the student teaching experience and most have since continued to carry on role-playing in their own training programs.

Audio tape was used to record role-playing, interview, and counseling sessions. The tapes were then replayed in the class while the class critically analyzed the behavior heard on the tape. Other uses of the tape recorder included recording presentations by the guest lecturers and consultants. When the presentation was found to be extremely valuable, a permanent record of the presentation could then be kept for replay to other groups. Material of a fairly sensitive nature such as an interview of an inmate regarding inmate perception of the role of the correctional officer could be taped and insure the inmate of anonymity.

Finally the use of video tape was explored and demonstrated. The intent of the Center staff was to use the video tape as a means of demonstrating communication techniques, group techniques, the development of self awareness and to afford training officers the opportunity to observe and critique their own teaching skills. Due to the expense of the equipment it was felt that this was a device that the institutions would not be purchasing. Perhaps due to the novelty of seeing oneself on the TV screen the training officers became very interested in this tecnhique and several have expressed interest in purchasing this within their own institutional setting. Inquiries have since been received regarding the potential of this tool in training as well as for treatment and education of inmates.

While the video tape was used to assist training officers in improving their teaching skills, its most common use was the instantaneous replay of small discussion groups. These small discussion groups were designed as intensive interaction sessions patterned after structured T-groups. A staff person would lead a small group discussing a controversial topic. This group would be seated in front of the class with the necessary television recording equipment in full view of everyone. The purpose of the controversial topic was to encourage interaction and stimulate reactions, feelings and differing opinions. A controversial topic also diverted attention away from the television camera and the class to the small group. These small group sessions usually



Picture No. III

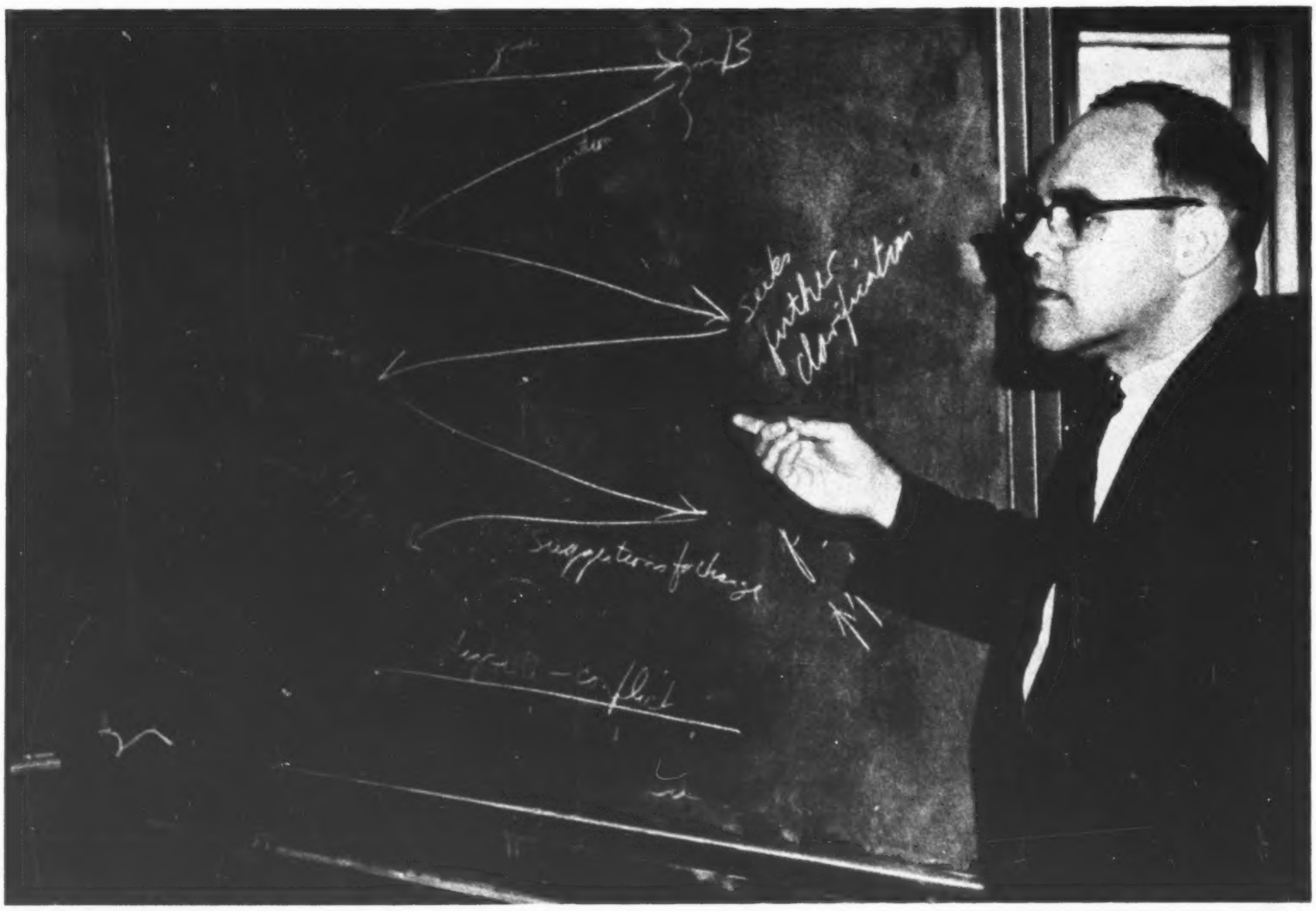
Class observing the video taping of a discussion (note TV monitor in back of room).

lasted thirty minutes. Then the tape would be rewound and a staff member would explain to the class the group dynamics, communication patterns, the obvious display of attitudes, values and biases and the reaction of group members to each other.

Picture No. IV

Explaining the dynamics of the group.

The class was impressed by the ease with which an individual presented his value system, how unaware each was of group phenomena and most importantly, how each could react to a stimulus and be unaware of his own actions or others reactions. This playback of video tape was frequently accompanied by a theory session in order to clarify human behavior.


B
seeks further clarification
suggestions for change
conflict

Picture No. V

Dr. Grenfell explaining how conversation may become conflict.

RELATED ACTIVITIES

A number of social activities were also planned to help participants become more familiar with each other and staff. A second purpose was to assist in the personal adjustments incidental to a prolonged visit to an unfamiliar community. Activities such as picnics at the local state parks were planned. Participants themselves planned visits to neighboring institutions. Social hours were held at staff homes, and all participants had dinner at least once at the homes of two or three of the staff. As a result, the training officers demonstrated a greater identification with Center staff as teachers and instructors than they did with their own men, many of whom they knew and many of whom came from their own institutions. This identification was especially noteworthy during the period of student teaching experience. Visiting representatives of prisons remarked about the existence of this sense of identification. A number of participants also commented about this feeling in their diaries. It was usually recorded in terms of "I seem to feel a stronger identification with Center staff and with my peers than I do with the correctional officers whom I know and have worked with over several years".

This concluded the first nine-week institute. As attested to by diaries, warm goodbyes and requests for future programs at Southern Illinois University, the experience was probably a good one for the training officers. However the real test of the attainment of objectives was yet to come. Center staff now had to evaluate the program and engage in field follow-up. Before the program could be considered successful, the University -- and the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance -- had to know if the content and techniques were being used in the field.

8

CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION

There were two kinds of evaluation planned for the Institute. The first revolved around paper and pencil tests and the evaluation of written materials submitted by trainers, correctional officers and management participating in the institute. The second which was felt to be even more crucial was a field follow-up in an effort to determine the impact of the Training Officer's Institute program on home institutions. In relation to the written tests, tests were administered regarding academic content, personality variables, attitudes and group processes. All of the tests were to be administered on a pre-and-post institute basis and where pertinent, six months later after field experience. These tests included an achievement test designed by staff to determine whether academic content was actually learned. This was supplemented by psychometric tests available on the market. The Edward's Personal Preference Schedule, a commonly used standardized test, provides fairly quick and convenient measures of relatively independent normal personality characteristics. The Helping Relationship Inventory is a measure of attitudes relating to techniques employed in working with people. The Hill Interaction Matrix, used to measure interaction within the small groups, was adapted to meet the needs for evaluating LEA training groups.

The achievement test developed by the Institute staff, was designed to evaluate basic information regarding areas deemed to be important to the field of corrections. The test had questions relating to the history of corrections, group process, communication, guidance, and teaching techniques. Because participants came from a variety of backgrounds and experiences, there were no "pass or fail" levels for any of the tests. The Center's concern was to measure change or growth rather than comparing individuals. All seventeen of the participants scored higher on the second testing than on the first.

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule was the test designated to measure personality variables. This test was selected as one which is commonly used for research purposes and is supposed "to provide quick and convenient measures of a number of relatively independent normal personality variables." The focus of this test was on the various behavior expressions of a normal population as opposed to an abnormal personality. This emphasis made it appropriate for use in the institute. The test has fifteen scales: achievement, deference, order, exhibition, automony, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nuturence, change, endurance, heterosexuality and aggression.

Center staff were interested in determining if there were **significant** differences between corrections personnel and the general population norms as established by the Edwards. Staff were also interested in determining if the nine-week experience might result in some changes on the test profile.

Preliminary data indicates that there are no significant differences, as measured by the Edwards, between the training officers, correctional officers and middle management.

There are significant differences between corrections personnel and the general population. These differences are in the areas labelled autonomy, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, nuturence and heterosexuality. Personnel scored significantly lower than the general adult population norm in autonomy, affiliation, succorance and nuturence. According to the area descriptions in the Edwards Manual, this might indicate that, compared to the general population, prison personnel were apt to feel restricted in their ability to come and go as they please, to need structure, and be unable to criticize authority figures. They may be less able to freely form friendships and may be guarded in their relations with others. It is likely that prison personnel feels more uncomfortable than the general population in their ability to give or respond to affection or assist those who are less fortunate than they.

On the other hand, prison personnel scored higher than the general population in intraception, dominance and heterosexuality, indicating a group tending toward high masculinity, feeling suspicious of other's motives,and desiring to dominate situations so that they do not have to argue or defend a position. Thus, the Edwards gives us a picture of personnel tending to be strong, masculine, dominant, cautious individuals who desire a good deal of structure.

In terms of significant changes as a possible result of the nine-week institute, there were only two areas, change and heterosexuality. Training officers moved in the direction of being more acceptable of change and willing to experiment with new and different ideas and things. This was certainly one of the aims of Center staff. Training officers also moved toward a desire for more heterosexual activities, that is, to become involved in activities with the opposite sex. This was not one of the aims of the institute but may be explained by the fact that the men were away from home for an extended period.

There is also the possibility that, since prisons tend to be one-sex communities, the experiences at the institute tended to reduce the isolation of the participants from the attitude currents of a normal community. The greater heterosexual interest could reflect a greater self-identification of this occupation group with the qualities of the social universe outside prison walls. Such expansion in perspective would be consistent with the ultimate purposes of the institute.

Since the Manual for the test indicates a fairly high reliability or stability coefficient, it is surprising that significant changes would occur over a relatively brief nine-week period. The stability coefficient for change is .83 while for heterosexuality it is .85.

At this point the reader should be reminded that the number of cases (N) in this group is small. Since there were small differences between the groups of trainers, management and correctional officers, all were placed in a single group totaling seventy-four, and called prison personnel. Thus, the conclusions drawn from the data are still tentative. Nevertheless, they do confirm some previous impressions formed by Center staff on visits to prisons.

The Helping Relationship Inventory is a test used to indicate working attitudes towards people. There are five catagories, understanding, probing, interpretive, supportive and evaluative. The basic assumption of the test is that it is most desirable to be understanding when working with people and the scales decrease in desirability toward evaluative. Understanding means the relationship is one of trying to understand the behavior of another and work with it without forming value judgements or comparisons. Evaluative is evaluating the person's behavior in terms of good-bad or right-wrong, the evaluations based on one's value system without trying to understand the basis of another's behavior.

On the pre-test, training officers tended to be evaluative and judgemental but advanced to the scales understanding and probing to gather more data on the post-test. The change was significant at the .01 level of confidence indicating that the changes which occurred were beyond being due to chance.

The Hill Interaction Matrix is a group therapy tool used to measure whether individuals spend group time talking about mundane items or themselves. The Center's adaption was to determine if the entire group discussed pertinent topics like prisons and "my role" or non-pertinent topics like weather and sports. There were significant shifts from the first week to the second toward the area of serious discussion of the topic, "my role" and "my reaction". The groups tended to stay at this work level through the entire institute.

The weekly diaries were also evaluated to determine if there were central themes of pleasure or displeasure with the institute. The diaries generally were extremely positive toward overall content and technique and were occasionally negative about specific items. In light of the heterogeneity in qualities of participants and their prisons, one would expect disagreements in evaluations of specifics of curriculum. The content of the diaries were discussed with training officers to demonstrate that they were used by Center staff, that training officers' attitudes and questions were considered important, and that their opinion were taken into consideration at staff meetings.

In summary, the written tests and evaluations regarding the institute were positive. Now the crucial test of whether the institute made a difference in the training officers prison program had to be investigated.

CHAPTER V

FOLLOW-UP

Probably the most crucial test of the effectiveness of the LEA Institute is whether the training officers who participated are using the content and the teaching techniques in their own prison training programs. The grant specifically required that field follow-up be accomplished by Center Staff to help determine whether the nine-week institute had an impact on training. Although this follow-up is not complete, it is safe to say that it has had an impact on training in terms of the use of variety of teaching techniques, the use of audio-visual materials to supplement content, and an increased emphasis on the behavioral sciences.

Generally, correctional staff have been receptive to attending in-service training programs. Evaluations of in-service training programs have elicited statements by security officers which exibit such receptivity. Examples of such statements include the following: "For the first time I have some understanding of why I'm supposed to be doing the things I do," and "I feel better able to handle inmate problems," and finally, "For the first time in eight years I feel I am able to make a contribution to the rehabilitation of the inmates."

Indiana, Tennessee, and one of the institutions in Kansas previously had very little formal orientation for new employees with the exception of on-the-job training. Since their representatives attended the institute, these states have added one week's formal training to the previous on-the-job "training." Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin have supplemented training programs with additional work from the behavioral sciences. Because Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan already had an effective training program, these states probably have been most successful in employing behavioral science concepts. North Dakota and Kentucky have added evening training sessions in which most of the staff participate. About half of the content of training programs now consists of behavioral science related topics as opposed to only 20% before the program started. A detailed report on each state follows:

Indiana: The Indiana Reformatory now has week-long orientation programs to supplement on the job training for new employees. Mr. Shuler, the training officer, is planning in-service training for experienced staff and has been delegated responsibility for developing work guidelines for every position in the institution. The reformatory has spent over a thousand dollars on training films, aids, and materials to supplement Mr. Shuler's program. In addition, they are attempting to purchase a video tape recorder for use in training staff and in the education and treatment of inmates.

At the youth center, Mr. Johnson has organized week-long in-service programs for both new and experienced staff. The administration at the youth center felt that Mr. Johnson's curriculum was so new and different that all staff should participate. Due to the nature of the Youth Center and its goals, there is less of an emphasis on security. Mr. Johnson was able to devote most of his program to the behavioral sciences. Of all the training officers, Mr. Johnson has probably made the greatest utilization of role playing.

Kansas: Mr. Banker at the Kansas penitentiary has been appointed training officer to succeed a retiring training officer who had organized a program similar to those found in federal installations. Mr. Banker is slowly introducing changes into this program. These changes consist of some role playing, an emphasis on the history of corrections, and the development and evolution of the role of the correctional officer. Mr. Banker is also participating in a exploration of pooling and sharing training resources with the United States Diciplinary Barracks at Leavenworth and the Federal Penitentiary at Leavenworth. Several meetings have been held between training representatives of each institution, and it appears that several cooperative efforts may ensue. They have started to share training films and materials, and are observing segments of each others training programs. There is some discussion around the possibility of combining training to maximize the effect and resources in the Leavenworth area.

At the Kansas reformatory, Mr. Pritchard has been named training officer, and has organized an extensive program where previously most training consisted of on-the-job experiences.

Tennessee: At the penitentiary at Brushy Mountain, Mr. Stringfield is the only training officer who had not been given the opportunity to organize a training program. During the follow-up visit Center staff were assured that Mr. Stringfield would be given this opportunity. An additional follow-up has not been made to Brushy Mountain to determine if this has been accomplished. A visit is planned in the near future.

At the Tennessee penitentiary in Nashville, Mr. Mills has received excellent support from the administration. He has been given a training office and classroom, plus several hundred dollars in materials and equipment. Mr. Mills is extremely active in designing transparencies for the use with the overhead projectors, developing slide presentations, and in role playing. He has both experienced and new personnel in his training program, which combines orientation and in-service training.

Illinois: Mr. Whitehead is a half-time training officer in the training program at Stateville Prison, Joliet, Illinois, where there is an extensive four-week training program consisting of two weeks of classroom materials, and two weeks of on-the-job training. To the existing program, Mr. Whitehead has added some material on role playing and history of corrections, and has developed some visual materials to support the program.

Iowa: Mr. Guinn reported that he was dissatisfied with what he perceived to be lack of administrative support at the Iowa reformatory. When the position opened as director of a conservation camp at McGregor, Mr. Guinn applied for and was awarded the position. At the time of the follow-up visit Mr. Guinn informed the Center staff that, since his staff at McGregor was small, he was unable to engage in staff training. He was using many of the techniques and principles learned at the Institute in working with inmates. Mr. Guinn was also serving as training consultant for the present training officer at Anamosa. Since the time of the follow-up visit, Mr. Guinn has left Iowa, and is now training director of the Wisconsin Correctional Academy at Elkhorn, Wisconsin. Mr. Guinn will be responsible for administrating the orientation and in-service programs at the Academy, and hence, can still be considered to be in training.

Michigan: Mr. Griffin has been developing inservice training programs for the State Department of Corrections. Mr. Griffin works out of the Central office and coordinates training programs for all of the state's institutions. In addition, he has been active in developing audio-tape vignettes of institutional critical incidents. These vignettes are open-ended, and Mr. Griffin has developed a set of questions that either he or the training officers may ask regarding the solution of the critical incident. The State Prison of Southern Michigan at Jackson also has a closed circuit television and video tape system, and Mr. Griffin has utilized these in his training program.

Minnesota: At the onset of the LEA Institutes, Minnesota probably had the largest training staff in the mid-west. A social worker was utilizing group dynamics and role playing skills in training programs. On completion of his training, Mr. Cooper decided that his contribution to the existing program could be in the area of the development of the emerging role of the correctional officer and the history of corrections. Mr. Cooper has developed an extremely interesting format in this area, which deals with the basic premise that early criminals were either killed or sent to mines and galleys to work out the rest of their lives. There was almost no escape from either of these fates except to resort to violence. As a consequence, prisoners and slaves were treated as "dangerous beasts". In an effort to escape many became "dangerous beasts" which started a vicious cycle whereby all prisoners were regarded as being dangerous. This vicious cycle, according to Mr. Cooper, is being carried on to this very day. Mr. Cooper is making plans to continue his education and is attempting to secure a leave of absence from the State Department of Corrections, attend the University, complete his Master's degree, and then return the Minnesota Department of Corrections.

Nebraska: Mr. Parrot has been acting as administrative assistant and training director for the Nebraska Penal

Complex, which consists of the penitentiary, the nearby reformatory, and the Boy's Training School. Mr. Parrot has organized a number of part-time inservice training programs, and has received considerable administrative support. Mr. Parrot has been able to spend over a thousand dollars on training equipment and materials, and because the administration does have a commitment to training they will be sending another man to a future institute so that Mr. Parrot may be relieved for more administrative functions. Another officer has already been named to participate in the spring institute.

North Dakota: On his return to North Dakota, Mr. Sprunk, the training officer, was named associate warden. Due to his recent training, his interest in improving the capabilities of staff and his own increased responsibilities in the area of custody, Mr. Sprunk has retained the training responsibilities. Because the North Dakota system is small, and it would have been impossible to organize week-long orientation classes, Mr. Sprunk organized a series of evening programs. Participation in these programs is encouraged but not required. Approximately 50% of the day-time staff attend the evening programs, and their response to the content and quality of the program has been positive.

Wisconsin: Mr. Jones is director of personnel for the Wisconsin Division of Corrections. In this capacity he has been responsible for training. Wisconsin has had an active inservice training program for several years. Mr. Jones' responsibility has been to coordinate many of these training activities. In this capacity, he has consolidated training activities among several agencies connected with the Department of Welfare. It is not unusual to see staff members from Mental Hospitals, Adult and Juvenile institutions in the same program. Wisconsin is currently embarking on a state Correctional Academy. This Academy will be under the supervision of Mr. Jones, and he has hired Mr. Guinn from Iowa to be director of the Academy. This Academy will be established at Elkhorn, Wisconsin.

Return follow-up visits will be made to several of these states. In addition, Oklahoma, Texas, Virginia, and Kentucky still must be visited, and this will be finished before June 30.

During the follow-up visits Center staff spend a minimum of a full day and usually two or three days at each location. Frequently staff are called upon to participate in training if there is a program at the time of the staff's visit. Center personnel are interested in the receptivity of training on the part of both the administration and prison staff. As a consequence, they spend time interviewing both parties. In almost every case administration has been receptive to the idea of training and enthusiastic about the training conducted by their training officers. Administrators have demonstrated this support by allocating much needed space for training activities and by financial support far in excess of the matching commitment expected by the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. As stated previously, most of the staff have also been supportive of training. They found much of the content and manner of presentation to be exciting and stimulating. Prison personnel have informed Center staff that they are particularly interested when the training is related to their job activities. Staff felt that the programs which they observed in the institutions exceeded their highest expectations in terms of receptivity by administration and staff, in terms of content which is being incorporated in training programs, and in terms of a variety of teaching techniques which the training officers are now using.

CHAPTER VI

CURRENT STATUS

As previously stated, the evaluation and follow-up of the first group of LEA training officers is incomplete. These will be completed by June 30, 1968. It is expected that the follow-up will, in fact, be completed by March 31. The final report should be submitted to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance sometime in June. In addition, to meet the requests of a number of training officers, the Center is attempting to develop a training manual to clarify the rationale and techniques for training adults in a corrections setting. It is expected that the manual will contain a number of annotated lesson plans that training officers may be able to use as guides in their training programs. There will be approximately thirty lesson plans, all of which will relate to some aspect of the behavioral sciences and corrections. These outlines will be fairly self-contained units from which a trainer may work in presenting a lecture to a class as well as containing reference material for further study.

In the initial plans and negotiations between Southern Illinois University and the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, it was felt that the states should make two commitments to demonstrate their interest in training. The first commitment was that the state would match the $200 furnished by the federal government toward the purchase of training materials. In every case the state has exceeded its matching commitment. In several states which previously had almost no training, purchases of equipment and training aids have exceeded $1,500. This objective has been fulfilled.

A second requirement was that the man was to return to his home institution and be placed in a half-time training capacity for a minimum of six months. Now, nine months after the termination of that first institute all but one state has fulfilled its commitment (with the possible exception of the four training officers on whom follow-up has not be completed). Here, too, the states have exceeded their commitment since more than half of the students concerned are in full-time training capacities. Two of the students are in administrative positions where they have the possibility of influencing administrative decisions regarding training. This objective, too, has been fulfilled. The lone exception to this commitment was made at the institution level and not at the state level. Since the time of our follow-up visit, both the warden of the institution and the commissioner of corrections have indicated that they would fulfill the commitment with this man. There is little reason to doubt that this will be done since another training officer in the same state has spent in excess of $2,000 on training materials, has been given his own office and classroom space, and has been named full-time training officer. Before the LEA institute this prison did not have any form of training. In addition, this state has continued to send individuals to SIU for training for other prison programs, indicating an overall training commitment by the state.

Graduate students were recruited to provide general assistance for staff and trainees. Additionally, it was felt that the use of graduate students in projects of this type might cause graduate students to think of corrections as a potential career field. It is too early to determine if this second goal has been attained since most of the initial graduate students are still involved in graduate work. Of the six who have left, two are in corrections, one as associate warden and the other as caseworker; two were hired by the Center as staff for corrections projects; one is the Illinois In-Service Training Coordinator for Corrections and one dropped out of school to take an employment counseling position in Chicago.

Those most directly concerned with the first Institute program have since disbanded as a team. Mr. Murton has become Director of Corrections in Arkansas. Mr. Stephan has become Superintendent of a diagnostic center in North Carolina. Dr. Grenfell is involved in the follow-up for the first group. Only Mr. Burns still has a full-time commitment to the training program. Therefore, a new staff was recruited to continue the institutes when the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance funded additional institutes (Grant #241) in response to field expressed needs for further training of trainees.

As of this date two additional training programs have been held. Enrollment, instead of being restricted to the mid-west, has been open to the entire nation to meet the demands for training from states excluded from the first program. Each Institute program has been over-subscribed by states and to date participants have been enrolled from approximately forty state correctional systems. Needless to say, there were some modifications in the ensuing institutes. These modifications were in keeping with recommendations of earlier participants and the Center's interest in benefiting from experience. However, the crucial point is that the possibility for progressive improvement stems directly from the positive response to the program by training officers.

A more detailed report regarding the research and demonstration projects of the first institute (Grant #041) and the second set of training institutes (Grant #241) will be found in the final reports submitted on the respective grants. The final report for Grant #041 will probably be submitted to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance after June 30,1968. The final report for Grant #241 will probably be submitted to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance after September 30, 1968.

APPENDIX I

LEA STAFF

POSITION	NAME	
Administrative Director	C. V. Matthews	
Project Director	E. H. Johnson	
Asst. Project Director	J. E. Grenfell	
Instructor	T. Murton	
Instructor	H. Burns	
Instructor	R. J. Brooks	
Graduate Student Advisor	H. W. Stephan	
Graduate Student Advisor	J. Twomey	
Graduate Student Advisor	J. W. Hughes	
Instructional Materials Coordinator	C. Daugherty	
Operations Analyst	L. Jansyn	
Graduate Students (8)		
Secretary (2)		
Visiting Consultants	Dr. Schaef	St. Louis State Hospital
	Dr. Denny	St. Louis State Hospital
	Mr. Mayden	Federal Penitentiary, Marion, Ill.
	Mr. Macieiski	Illinois State Penitentiary, Vienna, Ill.
	Mr. Rice	Kent School of Social Work University of Louisville
	Mr. Pierran	Indiana Dept. of Corrections
	Mr. O'Neal	OEO, Carbondale, Ill.
	Dr. Frank	Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower & Training
	Mr. Neilson	Berkshire Farm for Boys, N.Y.
	Mr. Rector	National Council on Crime and Delinquency
University Consultants	Dr. Mayer	Guidance & Educational Psychology
	Dr. Sanders	Rehabilitation Institute
	Dr. Prell	Business Research Institute
	Mr. Grosowsky	Design
	Dr. Thomas	Community Development

APPENDIX II

LEA PARTICIPANTS (TRAINING OFFICERS - 17)

MARCH 20, 1967 - MAY 19, 1967

Indiana	Cloid Shuler
Indiana	Charles Johnson
Kansas	Jim Banker
Kansas	Neil Prichard
Tennessee	Joe Mills
Tennessee	Nat Stringfield
Illinois	Donald Whitehead
Iowa	William Guinn
Kentucky	Owen Dixon
Michigan	John Griffin
Minnesota	Don Cooper
Nebraska	Bob Parrott
North Dakota	Kenneth Sprunk
Oklahoma	Gordon Wright
Texas	Elmer Burgess
Wisconsin	Omer Jones
Virginia	Richard Matney

APPENDIX III

LEA INSTITUTE SCHEDULE

MARCH 20, 1967 - MAY 19, 1967

1st Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Welcome, Orientation, Tests	Staff
	1 p.m.	Tour SIU and Carbondale	Staff
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Tests	Jansyn
	1 p.m.	Audio Visual Equipment	Daugherty
	7 p.m.	Films and Discussion	Bailey
Wednesday	9 a.m.	3-screen - SIU and Behavior Modification	Daugherty
	1 p.m.	Evolution of Prisons	Hughes
Thursday	9 a.m.	Tour Marion Prison	Burns and Hughes
	1 p.m.	Tour Vienna Prison	Burns and Hughes
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Kiefer
Friday	9 a.m.	Role Playing	St. Louis Group
	1 p.m.	Role Playing	St. Louis Group
	7 p.m.	Role Playing	St. Louis Group
Saturday	9 a.m.	Role Playing	St. Louis Group

2nd Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Correctional Officers' Changing Role	Stephan
	1 p.m.	Evolution of Prisons	Hughes
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Correctional Officers' Changing Role	Stephan
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Grenfell

Wednesday	9 a.m.	Reference Groups and Motivation	Stephan
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Hughes
Thursday	9 a.m.	Correctional Officers' Changing Role	Rice
	1 p.m.	Correctional Officers' Changing Role	Rice
Friday	9 a.m.	Role Playing	Marion Group
	1 p.m.	Reference Groups and Motivation	Kiefer

3rd Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Communication Techniques	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Institutional Programs	Stephan
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Basic Statistics	Grenfell
	10:30	Social Class in America	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	Brooks
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Stephan
Wednesday	9 a.m.	Group Structure (Formal Organization)	Johnson
	1 p.m.	Group Structure (Informal Organization)	Johnson
Thursday	9 a.m.	Nonverbal Communication	Grenfell
	1 a.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Burns
Friday	9 a.m.	Learning Process	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Influencing group Structure	Grenfell

4th Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Learning Process (Roles)	Mayer
	1 p.m.	Non-Institutional Programs	Johnson & Grenfell
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Creative Thinking	Grosowsky
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Kiefer

Wednesday	9 a.m.	Behavior Modification	Sanders
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
Thursday	9 a.m.	Communication	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Picnic	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Bailey
Friday	9 a.m.	Inmates Look at Correctional Officer	Pierran and O'Neal
	1 p.m.	Teaching Mental Health	Twomey

5th Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Development & Evaluation	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Practice Teaching	Grenfell
	7 p.m.	Laboratory	Horak
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Aggression & Violence	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film	Korff
Wednesday	9 a.m.	Teaching about Administrative & Supervisory Problems	Burns
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film	Rainey
Thursday	9 a.m.	Prison Social Structure	Johnson
		Off	
Friday		Off	

6th Week

Monday	9 a.m.	Introducing Changes into a Corrections Setting	Prell
	1 p.m.	Use of Inexpensive Materials	Brooks
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Audio-Visual Aids	Mitchell & Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film and Discussion	Stone
Wednesday	9 a.m.	Prison Social Structure	Johnson
	1 p.m.	Practice Teaching & Laboratory	

Thursday	9 a.m.	Critique	Staff
	1 p.m.	Laboratory	
	7 p.m.	Film	Brady
Friday	9 a.m.	Practice Teaching and Laboratory	Staff
	1 p.m.	Practice Teaching and Laboratory	Staff

APPENDIX IV

LEA PARTICIPANTS (CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS-44)

May 1, 1967-May 12, 1967

Kentucky	Clarence E. Skaggs
Kentucky	Frank Frazier
Kentucky	Wayne G. Lee
Michigan	Peter D. Mortlock
Michigan	Dwight E. Brooks
Michigan	Ralph J. Hoffman, Jr.
Michigan	Duane K. Webster
Michigan	John J. Berry
Michigan	Richard Christiansen
Michigan	Alphonse Mikelonis
Tennessee	Tony E. Harrison
Tennessee	James H. Rose
Tennessee	Clyde B. Dutton
Tennessee	James Hensley
Illinois	B. Carl Tiller
Illinois	Norman Busch
Illinois	Terry Brannan
Minnesota	Donald Belschner
Minnesota	Norman J. Thomas
Minnesota	Dale Bollenbach
Minnesota	Albert Boettcher
Minnesota	Patrick O'Hern
Wisconsin	Calvin V. Lewis
Wisconsin	Leonard F. Fromholz
Wisconsin	Joseph E. Lenss
Iowa	John A. Londrigan
Iowa	Dale O. Gilson
Iowa	Peter G. Pazour
Iowa	Thomas A. Petry
Kansas	Gary Rayl
Kansas	William A. Garber
Kansas	John Dicks
Kansas	Ralph L. Brigman
Kansas	Dallas C. Wetzel
Kansas	William D. Stuart
Virginia	Leftwich Reynolds
Virginia	J. T. Mitchell
Virginia	E. C. Faison
Tennessee	Duane Warren
Minnesota	Robert Elliot
Iowa	Robert N. McManis
Iowa	James E. Pruett
Indiana	George Miller
Indiana	Robert Walker

APPENDIX V

CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS PROGRAM

MAY 1, 1967 - MAY 12, 1967

First Week

Monday

9:00 a.m.	Welcome, Orientation, Tests
1:00 p.m.	Role Playing (card on floor)

Tuesday

9:00 a.m.	Human Relations
1:00 p.m.	Role Playing (warden interview)

Wednesday

9:00 a.m.	Correctional Evaluation and Trends
1:00 p.m.	Communications (verbal and non-verbal)

Thursday

9:00 a.m.	Innovative Programs
1:00 p.m.	Theory of Crime

Friday

9:00 a.m.	Corrections Officers Changing Role
1:00 p.m.	Types of Inmates

Second Week

Monday

9:00 a.m.	Group Structure - Formal Organization
1:00 p.m.	Group Structure - Informal Organization

Tuesday

9:00 a.m.	Role Playing (inmate problems)
1:00 p.m.	Role Playing (interview techniques)

Wednesday

9:00 a.m.	Understanding Behavior
1:00 p.m.	Social Groups in the Prison Community

Thursday

9:00 a.m.	Recreation Programs
1:00 p.m.	Social Class in America

Friday

9:00 a.m.	Principles of Supervision
1:00 p.m.	Summary

APPENDIX VI

LEA PARTICIPANTS (MIDDLE MANAGEMENT - 13)

MAY 15 - MAY 19

Mr. William H. Barker
Assistant Superintendent
Kansas State Industrial Reformatory
Hutchinson, Kansas

Mr. J. C. Johnson
Associate Warden
Kentucky State Penitentiary
Eddyville, Kentucky

Mr. John E. Woodley, Warden
North Dakota State Penitentiary
Bismarck, North Dakota

Mr. Donald Eichelberger
Deputy Assistant Director
Correctional Services
State Office Building
Des Moines, Iowa

Mr. George Stampar
Associate Warden
Illinois State Penitentiary
Stateville, Illinois

Mr. Louis C. Utess
Assistant Warden
State Prison, Southern Michigan
Jackson, Michigan

Mr. Elmer O. Cady, Chief
Administrative Service
Division of Corrections
Madison, Wisconsin

Mr. W. E. Woodroof
Richmond, Virginia

Mr. George Phend
Assistant Superintendent
Indiana Youth Center
Plainfield, Indiana

Mr. Robert Moore
Assistant Deputy Warden
Tennessee State Penitentiary
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. Van Nelson
Tennessee State Penitentiary
Nashville, Tennessee

Miss Tai Shigaki
Director of Staff Training
Department of Corrections
St. Paul, Minnesota

Mr. Steve R. Jones
Kansas State Penitentiary
Lansing, Kansas

APPENDIX VII

MIDDLE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

MAY 14, 1967 - May 18, 1967

Monday	9 a.m.	Welcome, Orientation, Tests	Staff
	1 p.m.	Legal Rights of Inmates	Dreher
Tuesday	9 a.m.	Report on Manpower Commission & Trends in Correction	Frank
	1 p.m.	Building Community Relations	Thomas
Wednesday	9 a.m.	Staff Training	Nielson
	1 p.m.	Staff Training	Nielson
Thursday	9 a.m.	What We've Done	LEA Participants
	1 p.m.	Demonstration & Report on previous 8 weeks	Grenfell
Friday	9 a.m.	Expectations	Grenfell
	1 p.m.	Graduation	

RURAL
CORRECTIONAL STAFF
AS AGENTS OF
COMMUNITY CHANGE:

–Developmental guidelines for the implementation of staff training programs for rural community based correctional personnel

LANE HUMAN RESOURCES, INC.
1901 GARDEN AVENUE
EUGENE, OREGON 97403

RURAL CORRECTIONAL STAFF
AS AGENTS OF
COMMUNITY CHANGE:

Developmental Guidelines for the Implementation of Staff Training Programs for Rural Community Based Correctional Personnel

This publication has been prepared to provide persons responsible for staff training of rural correctional personnel with materials which will assist them in the development, operation, and evaluation of staff development programs.

Donald R. Rinehart, Project Director
J. Thomas Richardson, Training Assistant

The publication was supported by the

Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
United States Department of Justice

Grant #124

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

CHAPTER I

CORRECTIONAL CHANGE THROUGH TRAINING - - - - - - - - - - - - - 1

UNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL CORRECTIONAL SETTING 7

1. Small Size - 7
2. Staff Heterogeneity - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 9
3. Lack of Previous Training Programs - - - - - - - - - 13
4. Rural Social Systems - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 14

CHAPTER II

TRAINING PROCESS - 18

A. DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 18

Lack of Previous Training Program - - - - - - - - - - 28

Small Size - 35

Heterogeneity - 43

Rural Social System - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 55

B. OPERATIONAL PHASE - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 65

C. EVALUATION - 70

CHAPTER I

CORRECTIONAL CHANGE THROUGH TRAINING

"For a great many offenders, then, corrections does not correct. Indeed, experts are increasingly coming to feel that the conditions under which many offenders are handled, . . ., are often a positive detriment to rehabilitation . . . the potential for change is great."[1] This quote from the President's Crime Commission Report gives the impetus for change and its concomitant, training to provide change. Change must be guided by the best in research and experience. New experiences must be the guide to the future of corrections; too often correctional setting has been as cloistered as a prison with its practices determined more by bureaucratic and political considerations than by new knowledge of correctional treatment. Positive change in corrections cannot come all at once, yet it must come quickly. Change by fiat would only destroy valuable experience and dedicated personnel.

"The costs of action are substantial. But the costs of inaction are immensely greater. Inaction could mean, in effect, that the Nation would continue to avoid, rather than confront, one of its most critical social problems, that it would accept for the next generation a huge, if not immeasureable, burden of wasted and destructive lives. Decisive action, on the other hand, could make a difference that would really matter within our time."[2] One plan where action is most crucially necessary and potentially fruitful is within the correctional settings. If the correctional staffs can be made to realize the necessity for change, a whole series of positive events would be triggered. First, those closest to the problem will face the fact that traditional techniques are not changing the offender's behavior; recidivism is very high. Having recognized the problem as it exists, correctional staffs can go on to seek solutions. Second, much research needs to be done, and such research could gain tremendous impetus from the encouragement of concerned correctional staffs. While financial support is necessary for research, the demand for it by correctional individuals is a prerequisite. Third, correctional staffs would then be in a frame of mind to study and consider the applicability of research in corrections which already has been done. For example, it has been shown that the use of differential treatment, half-way houses, and diagnostic centers all promise increased correctional success when skillfully used in the proper context. Most important, perhaps, correctional staffs would begin to see the necessity for change before attempting to change the patterns of behavior in offenders. Commitment to positive change has not been characteristic of traditional corrections. But an open attitude towards change will give correctional staffs the key to increased success in the correctional process. A common complaint is that corrections lacks the money and support for change. This is, regrettably, to a great extent true. But the public has seen but one stagnant image of corrections for years, that of prisons and recidivism. Self-commitment to a new and changing correctional process on the part of correctional staffs would do much to alert the taxpayers to the long-term profitability of a dynamic program of corrections.

---

[1] The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 159.

[2] Ibid., p. 185.

To bring about such changes in the correctional staff is not a simple task. Whole new patterns of behavior and thought must be considered and felt on an emotional as well as intellectual level. It is here that training plays the key role in enabling correctional change.

A well conceived training plan is the necessary ingredient for helping correctional staffs consider the overall concept of change as well as the specific changes felt necessary in a particular correctional setting. It is the purpose of this manual to aid a training officer to develop a comprehensive training program with staff members in his particular correctional context in order that he may assist them in the process of internal change so necessary to increased correctional success. The experiences in training staff members of the Lane County Youth Project to deal with individuals in the non-urban or rural setting such as Lane County Oregon have provided new and unique insights into training in the rural correctional situation.

It is not the intent of this manual to describe specific correctional training content and methods. Rather, the intent is to provide materials to a "Training Officer" or persons responsible for staff training of rural correctional personnel which will assist them in the development, operation, and evaluation of a meaningful staff training program.

The reader is referred to an excellent publication which contains specific content and method for the training of community training personnel: "Probation Training" Content and Method,"
Report #2B, December, 1965, Training Center on
Delinquency and Youth Crime, Institute of Government,

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
(Sponsored by the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and
Youth Development, Welfare Administration,
Health, Education, and Welfare - Grant #62208).

As previously stated, the commitment of the training program must be to change. The training program seeks to help the correctional staff member toward a change of attitude and practices which will in turn serve the primary goal of all correctional efforts, change in the correctional client. If the need for change is accepted by the correctional staff member, he must take on two new responsibilities:

1. Unlearning old habits, attitudes, and beliefs; and
2. Learning new ones.

Before expanding on how change can be achieved in the training process, it seems logical to examine where change is most needed. It has already been mentioned that this material is prepared expressly with the rural correctional context in mind, and thus will deal subsequently with the implications of the unique characteristics of most rural correctional settings. However, two main types of correctional settings exist - institutional and community based. The training experiences of the Lane County Youth Project produced a great deal of knowledge about training staff who work in rural areas in fields relating to community-based corrections. Thus, emphasis in this manual is placed on the community, although many of its training concepts are generic to any rural correctional setting. Moreover, the community setting seems to be the most fruitful in achieving the change desired by modern corrections. To quote the report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice:[3]

> "With two-thirds of the total corrections caseload under probation and parole supervision today, the central question is no longer whether to handle offenders in the community but how to do so safely and successfully. Clearly, there is a need to incarcerate those criminals who are dangerous until they are no longer a threat to the community. However, for the large bulk of offenders, particularly the youthful, the first or minor offender, institutional commitments can cause more problems than they solve.
>
> "Institutions tend to isolate offenders from society, both physically and psychologically, cutting them off from schools, jobs, families, and other supportive influences and increasing the possibility that the label of criminal will be indelibly impressed upon them. The goal of reintegration is likely to be furthered much more readily by working with offenders in the community than by incarcerations."

The President's Crime Commission went on to report that community treatment costs one-tenth that of individual incarceration. Even with substantial upgrading, community treatment can be economical. The Report also shows that approximately three-fourths of all probationers studied were able to complete their term of probation. This level of success was reported from a variety of types of probation services, and clearly emphasized the potential of a uniformly effective and dynamic community correctional system.

---

[3] Ibid., p. 165.

The experience of the Training Division of the Lane County Youth Project has been in the community context, and so its findings have special applicability to the community correctional setting. And marked potential for success in the community setting, as reported by the President's Committee Report, gives another impetus to the community emphasis of this manual. Some concepts may be generic to any training situation and thus be able to fill the institution's training needs. But the specifically "rural" insights which are unique to this training material seem to have little applicability in the institutional setting. Many institutions are located away from urban centers for reasons of cheap land, available farming areas, separation from the public, and others. However, every institution forms a closed environment of its own; it becomes a highly organized social island in the midst of a rural milieu. The administrative, supervisory and direct-service staff, together with the correctional clients, form an organization with fairly explicit status and roles, structure and function. The social organization of the rural community with its regular members, correctional staff members, and correctional clients is vastly different from the institutional social organization. Thus it is not felt that any substantial part of the Training Manual can specifically address the training problems related to institutional settings.

UNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL CORRECTIONAL SETTING

What, then, makes the rural setting different? How can earlier training experience provide unique keys to the process of in-service correctional change? To answer these questions, it is necessary to refer again to the process of change through training and to the characteristics of rural communities. These characteristics are: (1) the relatively small size of the usual rural correctional setting; (2) the heterogeneity of its staff; (3) their staff's lack of previous training program experience; and (4) the singular nature of the particular rural social systems in which staff must work. These four characteristics of rural correctional settings make unique demands on any training program developed for such a context.

In the non-urban correctional setting, there seem to be certain intrinsic components of staff and organizational structure which require special consideration in designing a training program.

1. SMALL SIZE

The rural or non-urban correctional setting is smaller than its urban counterpart. This means that the staff may not be highly departmentalized and structured. There may be little chance that any single person will have training as his only responsibility. Thus, some member of the staff may be given the added responsibility for planning, developing, implementing, and evaluating an in-service training program. The material presented here seeks to provide guidelines for training that such a training officer can apply in a variety of training situations. The training officer may have no real guideline to follow other than that he hopes to increase the effectiveness of his staff's efforts in rural community corrections. The training officer must, therefore, carve out the nature of his training tasks. Some individual must develop the training responsibility as part of his on-going job requirements. The larger urban correctional community setting can usually divide necessary tasks by establishing a fairly structured organizational pattern. Each individual is likely to be responsible for a single type of work, though his work load may be as large as that of the more multi-faceted non-urban staff member. In this urban context, each person can become something of a specialist, handling only certain cases or types of cases; in the rural context, however, a staff member may have to deal with several dissociated kinds of tasks each day. Without fairly definite role specifications, it is highly possible that non-urban staff members will be required to be "jack-of-all-trades, master of none." This lack of single role specifications has several implications for planning training programs. Training should seek to aid each staff member to define his job. When the responsibilities of a new job role are made explicit, superordinate expectations and subordinate responsibilities can be openly understood and acted upon. Further, such job role definitions can lead to innovation and more efficient or effective job roles for each individual.

As well as aiding in defining the job roles of correctional staff members, the training program must develop competence within those roles. The rural correctional staff member who is called upon to do several different tasks may have training (and competence) appropriate to only certain areas of his job requirements. In contrast, the larger urban correctional setting can afford the luxury of specialists doing only the work for which their training suits them. The smaller correctional setting may also hire specialists but often requires them to be generalists. Thus the training officer must plan for staff skill development in those areas where staff have responsibilities without concomitant training or experience.

2. STAFF HETEROGENEITY

Besides the relative smallness of the non-urban correctional setting, the usual rural correctional staff is highly heterogeneous in training, background, experience, and level. The staffs of urban correctional settings are heterogeneous, too, but in a somewhat different manner. Whole working areas may be divided and staffed on some logical pattern; there may be an Intake section, a Psychological section, a Probation and Parole, etc. Within each of these sections, staff members are drawn together by their relatively similar training and education, as well as by the tasks they are required to perform, such tasks as medical and psychiatric examinations, psychological testing and treatment, pre-sentence investigations, counseling (individual and group), and so on. Thus, within a given section there is often a minimum of friction since the basic professional assumptions and outlooks of staff members may be quite close. In the non-urban correctional setting, heterogeneity is found not just between given service sections, but often throughout the entire correctional staff. Smallness in size adds to this situation; an untrained person and a trained social worker both may be doing the same kind of job, in addition to other tasks. When different backgrounds and dissimilar basic ways of approaching a problem or a job are brought to bear on similar tasks, conflict can easily occur over the "right" way to perform. It is one of the tasks of the training officer to minimize this conflict. The definition of role responsibilities and expectations is an important step for each individual in the development of his perceptions of his job and his responsibilities. The training officer must further assist the trainees to develop a sense of common purpose and goals in order to provide a necessary incentive to cooperative work by a heterogeneous staff. Group discussion may air differences in conceived goals and may lead to self-realization of basic similarity of purpose between differently based staff members.

Another goal for the training officer should be to foster a greater ability among the staff to work with others in an interdisciplinary effort. The very idea of working towards a common goal from different approaches might never have been strongly adhered to by the staff members. Such things as divisions of responsibility on a case, final authority in deciding on treatment policy, disposition of cases, must be discussed and resolved so that the inherent conflict of background of a heterogeneous staff can be channeled into a productive and effective multi-faceted approach.

Still another concern for the training officer, which results partially from the usual heterogeneity of non-urban correctional staffs, is the need for training to be tailored to the individuals who make up the staff. Differences among the trainees may be in academic training, experience, background, level of responsibility within the organization, etc. In other words, different trainees require different kinds of training experiences. The training officer must consider those areas where individuals need individual development or knowledge, as well as those areas where group interactions can be profitable to all the participants. The training officer is required to match the needs of his trainees with the appropriate training content and method. Besides the necessity of developing training appropriate to different (heterogeneous) staff members, the very organization of a corrections program requires differential training programs. Various levels of staffing call for different training experiences in order to increase their effectiveness in working with other staff levels and with their clients. For this purpose, staff might be divided into three levels -- administrative, supervisory, and direct service -- each with individual concerns of training appropriate to it.

Ideally, each level should receive as much training as it can benefit by. Limits of time and money may prevent this idea from being fully realized. Therefore, the training officer should try to develop an overall training program, but perhaps concentrate his major efforts at the administrative and supervisory levels. This is not to imply that the direct service staff could not equally benefit from training experiences; however, when operating within a limited framework the training program can be of most benefit to everyone (including the direct service staff) by providing administrative and supervisory staff with training experiences which enable them to work more effectively with direct service staff. In short, administrative training experiences can "percolate" down through the organizational pyramid, giving benefit to both the supervisory and direct service staff levels. Similarly, training at the supervisory level benefits both that level, the direct service staff, and the relations between administrative and supervisory levels. Supervisory staff members and, to a greater extent, administrative staff members have an on-going responsibility to thoroughly understand the tasks and problems associated with those jobs under their supervision. Thus they must have training situations which will sensitize them to the day-to-day concerns of direct service staff or their supervision may lack the direction necessary to provide more effective working goals for direct service staff. Beyond this, the administrative staff must have training in the techniques appropriate to the supervisory level. With this knowledge they can help to coordinate supervisory activities within the supervisory level and to promote more useful supervision by the supervisory level for the direct service staff.

A further concern for the training officer is to develop specifically administrative skills at that level. Since many administrators have come up through the organizational hierarchies of correctional settings, their experience may not be oriented to specifically administrative skills. At the administrative level in his self-development program, the training officer should develop skills appropriate to modern administrative techniques. Modern "management" techniques are often not a part of administrative staff level experiences. Similarly, supervisory skills in working with direct service personnel may need development.

In fact, each level of staffing will require training experiences specific to it. The direct service staff will need sensitization to their role as the links between the correctional client and the community. They must develop the necessary relationships within the rural community that will allow them to act as a bridge between community opportunity and the correctional client who desperately needs the community's support. Training should provide guidelines and attitudes which will allow this staff level to develop such a relationship with the community. Another area of skills specific to a given staff level and which training should develop relates to budgetary matters. The administrative level must constantly deal with governmental appropriations and budget control. The more competent the administrative staff is in this area, the more time they will be able to use in coordinating staff effort toward attaining the goals of the organization.

3. LACK OF PREVIOUS TRAINING PROGRAMS

Besides the small size and heterogeneity of most rural correctional settings, a third area of concern for the training officer is the previous lack of training experience among the correctional staff. Because of the greater size and funding of urban correctional settings, there is a greater chance for an on-going training program to exist. But any new procedure such as developing a program may be threatening to staff members in a rural correctional setting. A training program can be conceived of as a patterned change in the trainee's attitudes, in his ways of dealing with clients, and in the assumptions upon which his work is based. Such changes could appear threatening to staff members who are less committed than the training officer to the concept of change as a necessary component of on-going correctional process. Such perceived threats must be overcome in order that staff's resistance to the training program be minimized and the positive effects of training be as great as possible. There are various ways by which the training officer can overcome resistance to change. The communications channel between the training officer and the trainees must be kept open so that constant feedback between them can be used to modify the training program to the changing needs of the staff. Bringing the staff into the developmental process of the training program will increase their commitment to it since they will have an investment in the training process. In the planning of the training program the use of staff suggestions for needed training areas will further increase their commitment to the training officer's efforts. By bringing staff higher in the organizational pyramid into the planning process for those over whom they have responsibility, the entire group will become committed to the training program which it developed together. Thus the administrative staff will be committed to the whole training program and, at the same time, will have tailored it to their unique needs and capabilities. In the on-going training process it is highly important to maintain evaluation and feedback as to the effectiveness of the training program so that the training officer may modify the program and mold it to the observed strengths and weaknesses of the trainees.

4. RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEMS

A fourth area of uniqueness found in the rural community correctional setting is the rural social system. Most correctional staff members will have received their previous training in urban centers which does not prepare them for the rural correctional milieu. Consequently, there is great need for a training program which can orient staff personnel to the distinctive and unique nature and problems of non-urban offenders and the rural social structure.

The social and political organization of the rural community differs in kind from that of the city. Even if one were fortunate enough to find the correctional worker who has knowledge of the problems of offenders in rural life, it is unlikely that he would also be knowledgeable about the structure and process of rural community organization. Such knowledge is a prerequisite to working in rural areas.

The rural social structure is liable to have several unique characteristics which must be considered if the rural correctional staff is to function properly in this setting. The structure is generally quite tightly knit allowing penetration by outsiders only after they have "proven themselves." There is a general distrust of strangers and a general cohesiveness among the townspeople. Relationships within the social structure are well defined in an equally highly informal manner. Everyone knows who the powerful people are in town, but no one really thinks about it. Leaders are natural, and respect is accorded to them by custom. The correctional staff must learn to deal with this tightly knit structure and to work within it. Techniques must be developed by the training officer, with the trainees, for identifying and gaining the cooperation of those people most helpful to the correctional process within a given rural community. The individuals living in rural communities generally prefer to deal with their own problems in a highly self-reliant manner; this can be a hindrance or a help to the correctional process. Often the correctional process is perceived by the community and the correctional staff as being an independent rather than a highly integral part of the community. This self-reliant community spirit can hinder the efforts of the correctional staff. If, however, the correctional workers develop a close relationship with the individuals of the community, such self-reliance can be of great assistance in joint efforts to deal with the correctional problems of that community. The community then becomes a part of the correctional process rather than a force acting against it. Training should provide techniques for developing such things as citizen's committees to act together with the correctional staff, thus insuring the community's and the correctional staff's responsibility for correctional problems in the rural community.

Staff to be trained are likely to come from urban backgrounds, have urban education, and are not apt to be from the particular rural setting in which the correctional agency is located. Training, therefore, must provide the correctional staff those skills, attitudes, and methods which will enable them to be accepted and which will assist in bringing about the necessary social structural change, the ultimate goal being the community's providing opportunities for the offender. Correctional staff must learn to deal with the clientele served in the setting in which they are found. By meeting with the townspeople in their own settings, in their businesses, restaurants, and other meeting places, the correctional staff members will go far in gaining the community's trust and cooperation. Any special idiosyncrasies of a community must be discovered, understood, and discussed in the training process. Such things as ethnic groupings, cultural backgrounds, special community events, and historical background can be utilized to sensitize trainees to the nature and texture of a community and to aid them in working effectively with it.

Once the original background of the community and its offenders are presented in the in-service training, orientation to the rationale of the correctional process becomes more meaningful. The development of substantive material for a training experience on this topic should have two main foci: First, there should be emphasis on the organization and coordination of various strategic elements of the community, including the rural correctional system (i.e., police, courts, probation, institutions, and parole). The development of skills in coordination, itself, becomes paramount in any attempt to achieve concerted action of diverse groups with equally diverse interests. Second, there should be emphasis upon the pragmatic solution to problems eminating from the specific community. This could be followed by a slide presentation depicting the rural correctional process. This audio-visual material has been developed as a training aid for the orientation of new correctional staff, staff development of present staff, and for training programs for community citizens. (The slide presentation has been developed with support of the U.S. Department of Justice - OLEA - Grant #124.)

CHAPTER II

TRAINING PROCESS

To develop a training program in which these four characteristics of rural correctional settings are fully addressed, the training officer must consider the training program as a whole. There seems to be three logical phases to a complete training process:

A. THE DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE:

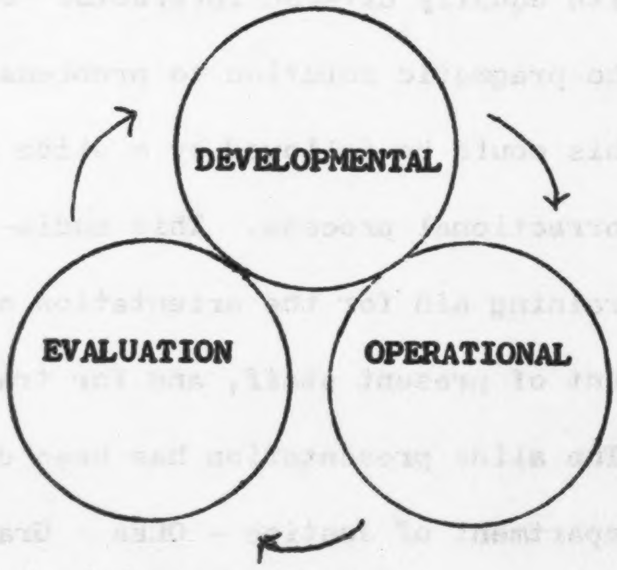
   1. Goal-setting (objectives), including assessment of training needs.
   2. Designing the content and methods which will achieve these goals.

B. THE OPERATIONAL PHASE:

   1. The carrying out of the developmental phase.

C. EVALUATION:

   1. Determination of the success of the training program.
   2. Implications for more effective training experiences.



A. DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE

In this phase, the goals of the entire training program must be considered. The underlying goal is, of course, change in the correctional process whose purpose is ultimately to change the attitudes and behavior of the correctional clients. But the more immediate goal-questions are: (1) what kind of change? and (2) change for whom?

1. What Kind of Change?

There are two major phases in the in-service training process: Orientation and Staff Development. Orientation seeks to bring the new staff member into the organization as a functioning staff member. He must learn the structure and the expectations of that particular correctional setting. If such matters are honestly and realistically dealt with in this early phase, much subsequent retraining can be avoided. The on-going Staff Development program deals with all staff members and seeks to develop them to their fullest capabilities.

For example, many staff members may have entered the correctional setting with little orientation to their role expectations and responsibilities. The goals of the organization and consequent demands on staff need to be explored and discussed. In an orientation session, expectations which may have been felt but were never made explicit can be exchanged; much friction and working at cross-purposes can be eliminated.

In-service training seeks to maximize the effectiveness of each individual and the total correctional organization's efforts. It is assumed that new methods and ideas (change) can benefit the correctional client's readjustment to society, but in order that these new methods and ideas reach the correctional client, the correctional staff must go through a process that will enable them to serve as the vital link between change and the correctional clients. The training officer must consider what sort of changes are necessary, and then decide how to go about effecting those changes.

2. Change for Whom?

As discussed before, change through training can come about at one level or at all levels of the organization. Some training experiences are specific to a given staff level, whereas other training experiences can benefit all members of the community correctional organization. In the developmental phase, the matching of training experiences and those who can most benefit from them begins. Consideration of funding, available time, and other such matters of feasibility must be considered, as well as the benefit to be derived for any given level of staff.

In a sense, the answers to these questions can never come from the training officer alone. His vision and experience cannot be expected to encompass every problem within the organization; thus he, alone, could not adequately develop a training program. Moreover, a different kind of planning is much more effective in bringing about the changes desired by a training program. The best planning is keynoted by involvement of trainees in setting up their training program, involvement of supervisory and administrative staff in developing organizational training needs appropriate to staff for whom they have responsibility. Involvement of the trainees in the planning phase entails utilization of their suggestions and ideas about a training program suitable for their felt needs. Discussion groups, written suggestions, or other personal means of communicating between the trainees and the training officer are important ways of developing a training program suitable to the needs felt by the trainees as well as insuring full participation by them in the training program. Their suggestions will guide the training officer in developing that content most felt to be lacking by them in their training. Moreover, training developed in this fashion will be perceived by the trainees less as something being done to them, and more as a group effort for their own benefit. The trainees should continue to work with the training officer on the program in which they will be involved. As they develop ideas, content areas, methods of presentation, etc., they will build further commitment to the training program and develop a group sense toward the training process.

As well as considering the trainee's needs in planning for the training program, the organization's needs from the trainees should be closely scrutinized. The organization, in the process of change, desires its members to participate in this flux in order that they may be more fully prepared to deal with the changing concerns and techniques of the organization. Training areas to be planned for will be built around experiences or abilities which the organization feels the trainees must develop so as to meet the changing demands placed upon the organization. Further, attitudinal changes among the trainees may develop better working and cooperation within the organization and with its clients. One way to determine what the process of change through training should be is to form a training committee. Members should be representative of all staff who will be working in training, i.e., administrative, supervisory, direct-service, and clerical. This committee would be a manageable-sized group who would assist the training officer in the developmental and operational phases of the program. The initial assignment of the training committee would be (1) to identify the range of problems to which training is relevant; some problems will be common to all groups and others may be peculiar to only one, and (2) after problems are identified and defined, to encourage committee members to consult people either inside or outside the correctional setting in search for concepts and methods applicable to the solution of the problems. For instance, individuals with different backgrounds are often found in the rural correctional setting; training in cooperative work efforts would aid in integration of these different backgrounds. Changes dictated by organizational needs should be especially planned for with the trainees involved so that these changes will be felt to be an extension of the group process rather than something imposed on them by the organization or its administration.

Besides developing with the training officer these programs needed on an organizational scale, supervisory and administrative levels should be included in planning processes for the levels for whom they have responsibilities, so that they will understand and link their own thinking to the changes going on at the other levels. In this way conflict is less likely to develop over changes going on at one level of the organization which are not understood or adjusted for at another level. The training process should be planned so that it leads its trainees along parallel tracks of change so that they are constantly headed toward the same goals of change. In concrete terms, it might be well to start with an inventory of the daily problems that have to be solved in a particular type of correctional setting. It might be found that there are principles useful for some but not for all. It also may be found that some of the problems are identical in various situations, that the ideas applicable to them can thus be generalized to some degree. But the approach here would be to begin with the problems rather than abstract generalizations. In practice, one would assemble the prospective trainees and ask them to inventory the ten most frequent or difficult problems in their work.

The training officer in working with the training committee needs to develop a master training plan which is dynamic and will necessarily be changed to meet the training demands of a changing correction program. In developing this master training program the training officer needs to record in an organized manner, and an assessment of training needs and methods for their solutions. Charts and graphs are helpful as aids.

Another area of concern in developing the training program is matters of feasibility. In order to insure full participation, the time factor must be considered. Work should be scheduled so that staff are allowed time off during working hours so that full participation may be gained from the trainees; optional or "extracurricular" training programs will likely meet with hostility from trainees who feel their free time is being preempted for extended work. Further, the length of time devoted to training should be geared to the type of training process, to the trainees, and to the content desired. Workshops, field observations, and other types of training experiences may all require longer periods of time than the lecture learning experience. The training and background of the trainees may also affect the time allotment; college-trained supervisory staff may be willing and able to benefit from a longer, more intensive theoretical session than would direct service personnel who might profit more from an experiential, training experience. Moreover, different content will require different lengths of time devoted to the training process; certain content areas lend themselves to intensive short-term training experiences, whereas others will require longer periods and repeated sessions in order for the desired change to be effected.

Another area of feasibility which must be considered is the resources necessary for the training process. Plans must be made for collection of needed materials such as audio-visual equipment and materials, papers, readings, as well as for the content areas which will be covered in the training process. Such things as parking, coffee, arrangements for buildings, chairs, tables, films, supplementary reading material, etc., all are important resources necessary for the smooth running of training programs. Another resource which the training officer may wish to consider is arranging for consultants who may be necessary or useful in a given training process. Such consultants as group specialists, indigenous consultants, or other correctional staff members from different states or settings may provide new ideas and techniques.

In planning the training process, there may be a hierarchy of needed changes with certain kinds of change primary and others secondary. It is thus important that the planning process begin to weigh the priorities of change. Criteria for priority would be change most greatly needed; change needed by the most staff members; and change required for other changes to take place. For example, within limits, it may be practical to suggest minor modifications in overall agency structure to effectuate the training function which is often superimposed on an agency structure evolved for other major purposes. The ideal would be climate which places a premium on continuous learning and the communication of tested concepts in policy and operation.

A second example of the application of priorities in planning for training would be the efficacy of developing competence in one situation before branching to other similar situations. The trainee will thus have a successful, practical experience from which he may generalize to other similar situations as he faces them in a training experience. Since it is much easier to master a single situational skill, the training officer may be confident that most staff members will succeed in this training endeavor. This success will give them confidence, show them the effectiveness and worth of the training program, and thus increase their receptivity and participation in subsequent training experiences.

A third example of priorities is the ascendency of practical experiences over generalizations. The concern of the training officer should be with working with the correctional staff member and helping train him in concepts that will solve his practical problems rather than with training him in concepts that will solve the problems of all staff members. Content of training should meet the criteria that places priority on making some decision or solving some problem the trainee will confront. If this criterion were rigorously applied, it would be far simpler to measure the consequences of training in tangible performance and practice choices.

The trainee needs to be able to relate the novel events of a training experience to things which are already familiar. An example of this is when a university trained person enters correctional work; he struggles to relate the tangible particulars of experience to previously-learned concepts and definitions. When an untrained correctional worker first enters correctional work, he may try to relate particulars of his role to popular conceptions of crime and punishment which may not be in harmony with the philosophy of a modern correctional system. Often the trainee will see no relevance or value in the abstract concepts presented in the classroom because he is unable to see that such concepts have any practical power to solve the problems of the job. Therefore, for a training program to be completely successful and for the principles to be accepted in practice, it must meet two essential conditions:

(1) Its principles must be immediately at hand when the correctional worker experiences the problems; and

(2) The principle must work to relieve the problem as experienced by the correctional worker.

The developmental process thus seeks to accomplish three broad goals:

(1) To set both the long-range and immediate goals of change in the light of a desired correctional model;

(2) To involve the trainees from the very beginning of the training program; and

(3) To set priorities of action within the process of change.

The Developmental Process, then, sets the goals of the training program; determines how these goals of change will be reached; and develops methods and content appropriate for the desired change. The content, or actual conceptual, practical, or experiential subject matter, helps to determine the method appropriate to it. The training method appropriate to developing skills of administrative relations would not likely be limited to a lecture by a consultant. Practice sessions in decision making would provide a much more lasting and effective training experience and have great applicability to the actual problems of administration.[4] These in conjunction with a discussion-lecture led by a management consultant on how administrators should face and handle the decision-making process might comprise the most fruitful training methods for such concepts. Thus method is determined by content or change which is sought, and by the available methodological resources. That is, if a given method becomes available, a whole cluster of concepts suitable to it may be included in that method.

An example of this is a rural social-structure sensitization utilizing a town meeting. Attendance at such a town council or public meeting by correctinnal staff members provides an initial stimulus and real-life experience upon which a group dicussion among the correctional staff members could begin. This discussion could stem from topics discussed in the meeting, and lead to their relavance to the correctional system, to persons and resources whose aid could benefit the community correctional operation. Further discussion might deal with what corrections

---

[4] An example would be the Probation and Parole Management Training Institutes sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency. For further information contact Vincent O'Leary, Director of Research and Planning, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 44 E. 23rd, N.Y., New York, 10010.

can offer to the community; and at further meetings, a fruitful dialogue between the community and the corrections staff could be established. This is a case where the method at hand -- a stimulus (town meeting) followed by a discussion -- gives the impetus and basis for the content, i.e., establishing relations with the community. Thus the method and content are mutually dependent and should be well-matched.

Each of the four unique aspects of the rural correctional setting have implications for developing a training program.

--Lack of previous training program

--Small size

--Heterogeneity

--Social structure

Lack of Previous Training Program

The training program as such is probably a new area of concern within the correctional setting. The purpose of this manual is to provide guidelines for setting up and operating a training program in a rural correctional setting; certain aspects however, may be applicable to established training programs. With the training program in the process of establishment, the extent and nature of the training officer's responsibilities are not yet set. In effect, the training program must be carved out of the already existing community correctional organizational structure. Since the development of the early phases of the training program are likely to have profound effects on its later success, care must be taken in this early phase to provide the best circumstances and planning. If the training program is hastily patched together or is considered a "waste" from its very inception by certain staff members, it will begin with

a heavy negative burden and will have few chances of effecting the desired changes. Four major groups of people can make or break the Developmental Phase of the training program.

--Administrators

--Supervisors

--Direct-Service Personnel

--Community Residents

The training officer must deal with and gain the support of a number of people if he is to develop an effective training program. At the administrative level, he must work under the direction of the administrators. He must gain their support of the training program, or it will likely fail. First, they are necessary as enablers; they provide direction for the entire organization, and if they do not accept the changes the training program desires, it cannot be expected that any changes at other organizational level will have a profound effect. If, for instance, the training program seeks to develop a new approach in the way cases are assigned to Probation and Parole Officers and the officers are trained in this concept, the results of their training cannot be applied if the administration has not changed its policies in the process. Second, the administrators' own training and understanding of the training needs of the staff place them in a unique position of providing insightful guidelines for the training officer. They may have many valid ideas of necessary changes which could be enabled through a training program. The training officer can hardly be expected to know everything that would serve as the best goals for the training program. Third, the administrative level can benefit as much or more than the other organizational levels

from the training experiences which the training officer will seek to develop. Such concepts as budget control, administrative techniques, and public relations all are important at the administrative level. Thus it is highly important that the training officer gain the wholehearted support and cooperation of the administrative level early in the development of the training program. Certain guidelines will help him to maximize their support. Such things as planning committees, check-lists of most-needed training areas, self-analysis of new skills or training areas to be developed, etc., are operational ways of bringing the administrative level into the developmental process. The administrators should be brought into the planning process at its very beginning. They have much to contribute at this point in the training process. Moreover, they will begin to feel a greater commitment to the goals of change as they are formulated. Thus approval and encouragement at the administrative level will spread down through the training program to all the levels it touches, and the training program will come to be an extension of the organization's philosophy and goals.

The second level of people with whom the training officer must work are the supervisory staff members. They are likely to be his co-workers or his subordinates and they, too, are enablers of the training program. Usually it is through them that the training program reaches the direct-service staff. Thus, like those at the administrative level, they can serve as a catalyst to the training program or as a block to it. They must be an integral part of any process of change, since they will be affected by it and will translate it to the direct-service staff. If they are not an integral part, they may stand in the way of the change

process. They have much to contribute to the development of the training program. It is likely that they will stand somewhere in between the administrative and the direct-service levels in their involvement with the correctional clientele. This provides them with a fairly balanced view of both organizational and offender needs and permits them to bring a steadying force to any plans for change. Moreover, the supervisory level may even act in a truly training capacity. When asked to become trainers, that responsibility will often give them the incentive to learn more themselves in order that they may become better teachers. The direct-service staff are likely to be more receptive to the training process if it is presented to them by respected supervisory or senior staff members. In addition, the supervisory level can gain much for itself in the training process. Techniques of supervision, decision-making, use of community resources, etc., are supervisory skills which can be benefitted by development through the training process. Therefore, the training officer also needs the support of the supervisory staff early in the development of the training program. Involvement in the planning process will increase commitment to the training program on the supervisor's part. By asking them to name those areas in their direct service staffs which most need development, self-analysis, and suggestions for administrative procedural changes, the supervisors can be involved in the planning process. As they contribute necessary ideas, concepts, problem areas, and skills to the training program, they, like the administrators, will begin to feel they have an investment in it, an investment they will work hard to enrich.

A third level of people the training officer must consider are the direct-service staff members. They have both trainee and trainer functions in a complete training program. As trainees, they may be the least flexible in the process of change. Their security is likely to be a function of the stability of their job pattern. When the demands and responsibilities of their jobs shift as a result of the change-goals established in the training program, their security may be threatened. It is up to the training officer to minimize feelings of insecurity and any concomitant resistance to the training program and to maximize receptivity and participation. To increase commitment to change and the training program, involvement is again the key. When the direct-service staff members see that their actions and thoughts have real consequence in the development of the training program, they will feel that they have a control over their future and are not just gripped by forces against which they have no power. Moreover, their involvement can give the training officer a sense of the problems they face in their work, and thus ideas for training which can aid staff to become more effective. For example, they could list the five most common problems they meet in the community correctional scene; what they consider to be organizational strengths and weaknesses; and what they conceive to be training needs. It is especially important that the training officer introduce training programs to them as an extension of their own thoughts, and not as the will of the "Director." It is likely that training ideas which come from the administrative or supervisory levels may also arise in some form at the direct-service level. If not, the training officer might be wise to encourage discussion among direct-service staff, leading it to come around to such training concepts and their necessity in the correctional settings. Through these means, the training officer should seek to genuinely involve the direct-service staff. They will be much more benefitted by the training program if they feel they have had a stake in it. What is more important, they, as people, deserve the chance to participate in decisions and changes which may profoundly affect their work.

The direct-service staff are closest to the correctional clients, and in many ways are more able to identify the problems between corrections, the correctional client, and society. The training officer can learn much during the planning process by questioning the direct-service staff as to their felt problems, experiences, etc. Moreover, the direct-service staff may be able to bring real-life experiences to other staff members who may be far removed from the actual process of change in the correctional clients. Furthermore, when given training responsibility, direct-service staff may find that they develop new feelings towards training which lead them to more significant trainer roles in the training process.

A fourth group of people with whom the training officer must deal are community residents. As previously discussed, the bulk of correctional clients are being treated in a community setting. Furthermore, it appears from most research, such as that reported by the President's Crime Commission Report, that the community setting has the greatest potential for inducing positive change in the correctional client. If the community correctional setting is to bring about positive change in the correctional client, one goal seems salient: that the correctional client again become a functioning part of the social system from which he has been alienated. This reintegration of the individual into his community has two mutually dependent aspects: one is that the community may need certain broad changes so that it will become a fully, functioning place to live for all its residents. (In its broadest sense, such community social change will be discussed later.) The second aspect is that the correctional client must learn acceptable patterns of work, play, and socialization in the community. In both these phases, the correctional staff have major responsibilities in coordinating the community correctional agency's efforts, and those of the people in the community. Without the support of the community, the efforts of community corrections are in vain. The correctional staff member should take the lead in cementing good relations with responsible community people. In the early developmental phase of the training program, community people can often aid the training officer and correctional staff in setting objectives. It is likely that the community has desires as to the manner in which the community correctional system intervenes in rural community life. In early planning sessions, such feelings can be brought into the open. Involvement can give the community a sense of participation in its correctional processes and can do much to destroy the negative separation of community corrections from the community. Moreover, involvement tends to destroy much of the ignorance about the correctional process which may be prevalent in the community. Such ignorance often builds fear, mistrust, and lack of cooperation. With knowledge of the correctional system's workings, a much more constructive community attitude can be fostered.

The training officer would be wise to involve community individuals in the designing of methods and content appropriate to these training objectives. On the one hand, these persons might gain much by exposure to correctional staff members. On the other hand, the training program can best teach concepts of community involvement, rural social structure, reentry of correctional clients into the social system, etc., by directly involving the trainees in the life of the community. And the one best way to get such an involvement is with the help of community residents who are interested in the training needs of the rural correctional system. Most important, such involvement of community people can foster a much better relationship between them and community correctional clients. Even though community correctional staff members can greatly benefit in a training sense from cooperation by community people encouraged by the training program, it is the correctional client who ultimately benefits the most from a receptive community. A community which is knowledgeable about its correctional system, and is highly involved in it (often through the training program) becomes a community that is willing to give an offender a second chance for a job, job-training, a home, encouragement and support, and genuine friendship. A hostile town can completely destroy the efforts of the community correctional setting. A receptive town can make corrections really work. It is a major responsibility of training to develop positive relations with the community.

Small Size

There are two major training implications of the usually small size of the rural correctional setting: (1) in-service training must furnish job-function definitions; and (2) that the multi-faceted requirements may require development of skills. To understand these implications, it might be well to consider again the "typical" characteristics of the small rural correctional setting. These characteristics are found, of course, in greater and lesser degrees in specific rural correctional settings. Some however, are apt to be generic to each correctional situation.

In the larger urban setting, the size of staff allows for one person to do jobs of a similar nature. It is likely that the correctional staff member in the small rural setting, however, will be required to perform numerous kinds of jobs simultaneously and some of these tasks may be beyond his defined job. The training of the rural correctional worker will probably not have encompassed all the areas in which he will be required to work. It is possible that his skills and training were matched with his major defined job function and he may have no real abilities in auxiliary job functions. A fairly frequent example of this situation is that of parole and probation supervisors who are expected to combine supervisory responsibilities with a case-load of correctional clients as well. It may be hard for such individuals to delineate where one job begins and the other ends. It is very important in the training of these persons to set up priorities with which they can weigh job demands and then act on those which have highest priority. It is also possible that such supervisors have attained their supervisory positions through years of experience and good performance as direct-service workers, and/or probation and parole officers. Therefore, they may never have been trained or had the necessary experiences to equip them to act in a supervisory capacity. This is only one example of the function of job definition and concomitant skill development which is so vital a training implication in the usually small sized rural community correctional setting.

In order to deal with this training need, the training officer must consider changes in organizational job-function definitions and in the mutual perceptions of job functions by members of the correctional organization. In the early planning section of the developmental phase, the training officer should help staff to determine just what job-function expectations are held. An especially effective way to accomplish this is in a staff training meeting. The training officer would ask that the administrator jot down what he thinks his job functions are, the supervisors job functions, and the job functions of the direct-service personnel (have them rank these in order of their importance). Similarly, the supervisors could list what they felt were the job-function responsibilities at their level, and at the administrative and direct-service levels. And the direct-service staff could list what they felt were their job-function requirements as well as those of the other two levels. From these lists, the training officer might draw a large 9-fold chart:

JOB FUNCTIONS FOR:

BY	ADMINISTRATORS	SUPERVISORS	DIRECT SERVICE
ADMINISTRATORS	**(1)** **Prepares budget** **—** **—**	**(1a)** **Supervises Probation and Parole Officers** **—** **—**	**(1b)** **Prepares presentence reports** **—** **—**
SUPERVISORS	**(2)** **Hires and fires** **—** **—**	**(2a)** **Prepares employee evaluations** **—** **—**	**(2b)** **Prepares Revocation Reports** **—** **—**
DIRECT SERVICE	**(3)** **Supervises Supervisory personnel** **—** **—**	**(3a)** **Manages district office, etc.**	**(3b)** **Counsels Probationers**

ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTIONS:

at #1 - At #1 would be listed what the administrators think each of his own job functions are, e.g., prepares budgets, etc.

at #1a - Next would be listed what the administrator thinks are the job functions of the supervisory staff, e.g., supervises Probation and Parole officers, etc.

at #1b - Next would be listed what tne administrators think are the job functions of the direct-service staff (Probation and Parole officers), e.g., prepares pre-sentence reports, etc.

SUPERVISORS' PERCEPTIONS:

at #2 - At #2 would be listed what he thinks each of the administrators' job functions are, e.g., hires and fires.

at #2a - Next would be listed what he thinks are each of his own job functions, e.g., prepares employee evaluations.

at #2b - Next would be listed what the supervisor thinks are the job functions of the direct-service personnel, e.g., prepares revocation reports.

DIRECT-SERVICE PERSONNEL'S PERCEPTIONS:

at #3 - At #3 would be listed what he thinks each of the administrators' job functions are, e.g., supervises supervisory personnel.

DIRECT-SERVICE PERSONNEL'S PERCEPTIONS (cont.)

at #3a - Next would be listed what he thinks are each of the job functions of the supervisors, e.g., manages district office, etc.

at #3b - Next would be listed what the direct-service personnel thinks are his job functions, e.g., counsels probationers.

And thus the chart shows self-perceptions of job functions and perceptions of other job functions. If done properly, the training officer is able to encourage an atmosphere of real evaluation and desire for change that will allow such a training session to go on without animosity or the development of negative feelings.

The importance of this chart lies in its pointing up the probable gap between the mutual job-function expectations of the staff. When staff members begin to realize that their perceptions of functions are not realistic, the motivation for change will become great. And with the actual expectations of staff made explicit, the best routes of change will guide staff in the training process.

Both organizational and self redefinitions of job functions must then occur. The training officer might promote the formation of a "Reorganization Committee," made up of representatives of all staff levels. Its task would be to determine those job-function changes dictated by the chart and to discuss which the organization might sponsor. That is, certain responsibilities might be regrouped, reassigned, and new priorities set. As soon as new organizational job functions are developed, the training officer should work with staff and at each level to try to develop a solid sense of job function. Along with his immediate supervisor and the training officer, each individual might discuss his job function, what its responsibilities are in relation to staff and clientele, and so on.

It is incumbent that the training program in the small rural correctional setting foster positive redefinition at all levels of job functions. The redefinition of job functions is an important first step in dealing with the multiple responsibilities of the individual staff member in the small rural correctional setting. The second step which must be considered as a result of this implication is provision for skill development within the defined job functions. In this reference, skill development is intended in its broadest sense. It may be anything from typing skills to skills in interviewing. The early planning session of the program's developmental phase no doubt will have pointed out numerous training needs. New definitions of job functions will assist all staff members in determining where their strengths and weaknesses lie and what areas need development through the training program. The training needs listed in the early part of the developmental phase later may be modified by changed perceptions of tasks within the correctional organization. Once again, a nine-fold chart can be of help in developing overall planning of needed skill development. It is suggested that the Job Function format be used (see pp. 37-40).

SKILL TRAINING NEEDS FOR:

	ADMINISTRATORS	SUPERVISORS	DIRECT SERVICE
BY			
ADMINISTRATORS	(1)	(1a)	(1b)
	–	–	–
	–	–	–
SUPERVISORS	(2)	(2a)	(2b)
	–	–	–
	–	–	–
DIRECT SERVICE	(3)	(3a)	(3b)
	–	–	–
	–	–	–

In this chart, those four or five areas of training which are felt to be most pressing at each level are listed by administrators, supervisors, and direct service staff. The unique value of the chart is the immediate comparison it allows between what one level sees as its skill-training needs and what the other staff members feel are needed at that same level. Then the training committee could set up the most pressing training needs in order of priority. As sections of the training program are implemented, evaluation can determine whether the change sought in the skill-training has been accomplished. Then those training goals which have been reached

can be replaced by new goals, and those which are yet to be reached can remain at top priority in the training program.

Heterogeneity

The third major uniqueness of the rural correctional setting is the usual heterogeneity of its staff. As stated previously, this is a heterogeneity of training, background, experience, and level; and rather than being diversified by broad sections of service, the staff is likely to show diversity within a given broad job function. Varied training or educational experiences may be useful to a given job, but while certain staff members may have some of these attributes, others may have different ones. It has been shown that certain conflicts and problems eminate from this heterogeneity.

a. When different backgrounds are brought to bear on the same job function, friction may arise as to the one "right way" of doing the job.

b. Training itself needs to be highly tailored to the differences among the staff members.

To deal with the first problem, the training officer should set up an open training experience in which each staff level has its own session. In this session the goal of the training officer would be to bring out into the open the various methods which each person uses in solving the problems of his job function. One way to do this would be to refer to the lists of major job functions which were made in earlier training sessions (see page 38). Then each person might describe what techniques and methods he uses in handling each phase of his job function. If the job function were counseling, for instance, the techniques might be based on psychology, sociology, social work, employment, counseling, etc., depending on the training background of the staff member. (Using counseling as a constant job function approach, this technique would work equally well for many other job functions, i.e., administrative tasks, public relations, pre-sentence investigations, and others.) These descriptions would help each staff member and the training officer to understand and identify the set of ideas which others might bring to a given counseling task. After this, the training officer might give a case example of a correctional client and ask each person to evaluate how he would go about dealing with this client. Each person would write out a case plan placing priorities on each phase of the treatment program for the client. In the extreme, each background represented by the staff members would place the client's problems (and their solutions) in light of his own discipline. That is, the social work trained staff member might put top priority on case work; the employment specialist on getting a job, etc. In practice there may not be quite so sharp a delineation, but it is almost certain that staff members with different backgrounds will see the priorities differently.

It is then the task of the group and the training officer to determine the "best" route of action. It is important at this point for the training officer to show that the "best" route of action on this case-example might be each individual's case plan. This is true because the proper technique ineptly applied is always more harmful than the less proper technique in the hands of a staff member who's familiar with it. But the crucial point which the training officer must make is that there are "best" techniques for dealing with each case; and each individual must become conversant with all of them if he is to provide maximum service to every correctional client. Furthermore, each case is likely to require the application of not just one but several techniques and approaches. The background of each correctional staff member will provide some needed tools for dealing with the correctional client. But the training officer's real goal is to identify those skills which are necessary to properly serve the correctional client, finding which skills are already held by what staff members, and to enable the staff to fill in their skill gaps. (He may wish to use the techniques described on page 42.) It is obvious that even a trained case-worker cannot become a public relations expert overnight, but the additional development of skills in relation to the community must become a part of his competency, without this ability, he is not a totally efficient part of the correctional organization.

There are three major ways to develop these necessary skills that round out the proficiency of correctional staff members at each staff level and for each job function: (1) individual skill development; (2) cross-fertilization by other staff members; and (3) job function division. These approaches may be used in combination or individually as the training content, available resources, and training needs dictate.

(1) Individual Skill Development - Certain individuals may require training in concepts which they need in order to provide necessary services within their job function. Such training may best be accomplished by direct experiences from the training officer. For instance, the training officer might hire a consultant for a one or two-day session on budget control. Certain administrative staff members may have had little or no experience or training in the handling of funds. A consultant might

provide a concerted experience with reference materials on the practical handling of program funds, resource allotment, etc. All or several staff members may require an individual training experience in some new field of competency. The advent of a new reporting form, a new legal right for correctional clients, or a new opportunity for correctional clients (such as a new community diagnostic and treatment center) would dictate an immediate training program for all affected staff members. They would need familiarization with the new resource, training in the various ways it might be utilized and, possibly, simulated experiences which would give trainee staff members practical knowledge for dealing with the new situation.

(2) Cross-Fertilization By Other Staff Members - The second way the training officer can assist the staff members in rounding out their skills is to match, in a training situation, those who possess the needed skills with those who lack them. In this process, both an open group situation and individual aid by the knowledgeable staff member will be helpful. In the group situation, all the staff members will contribute their skills to the solution of a problem. Then the training officer must guide the group in a self-analysis of skills and/or their lack. He would ask those staff members who had a given skill to identify its essentials in application to the problem. By applying the skill, they would help other staff members to understand the how and why of its application. It would then be up to the training officer to generalize the concepts discussed and to apply them to a series of similar situations. Next, the trainees would be given a similar situation and would be asked to apply

the concepts just discussed. They would be guided in this process by the knowledge and experience of those workers who already possess the skills. It is anticipated that the training roles will reverse as different skill areas are dealt with and the cross-fertilization of ideas will go from person to person as they find themselves able to contribute to the skill development of other staff members.

(3) Job Function Divisions - The third way in which necessary skills can be developed and utilized is by re-dividing job functions. This process is a good deal like the division of job functions discussed under the effects of small size on the rural community correctional setting. In the case of the heterogeneous staff, it may be wise to reconsider job function assignments. Staff members with highly heterogeneous backgrounds may have similar job functions. If the skills of one staff member seem more appropriate to a certain job function, it may be possible to reassign jobs so that he may concentrate on those job functions which utilize his highest levels of competency. Then, staff members who have other areas of special skill can concentrate on their skills, too; moreover, they will not be required to apply techniques which really lie outside their level of highest competency. This reassignment of job functions is not aimed at a complete departmentalization of tasks; some functions must be carried on by all staff members. But such a division seeks to match the most extreme problems with staff members most capable. For example, in counseling, the most capable staff member in terms of psychological training should be assigned those correctional clients whose primary readjustment problems are psychological. On the other hand, he should not receive a correctional client whose main concern is job placement. In the first

place, this is a misuse of his psychological skills; secondly, his job placement capabilities are probably not as great as his psychological training; and third, another staff member whose background is in job placement can be most effective on this case, both in terms of "production" and in terms of helping the correctional client. Whenever possible then, that person who is most capable to perform a given function should be matched with that function. The training officer should help staff to set up some regular, structured system for analyzing new cases, job functions, assignments, etc., as they enter the community correctional system, and for matching them as closely as possible with those staff members whose skills are most suitable.

Staff is obviously "heterogeneous" in respect to staff levels. The training officer must differentiate between those training experiences which are universal, and those which are linked to the needs of a given level (level-specific skills). For example, effective communication is imperative at all levels; staff must communicate up and down the line if they are to act effectively. Moreover, communication is a necessary skill for establishing community relations as well as for dealing directly with the correctional offender. Therefore, skill in communication is a training need which is universal; it must be developed at all levels of staff. All staff depend on communication as their basic tool for dealing with each other, the correctional client, and the community. As effectiveness of communication increases, so does the effectiveness of the correctional organization.

The training committee serves as one model for effective communication. It in itself seeks to enable the maximum communication of felt training needs within the organization. Rather than the training officer deciding what the communication training needs are, the training committee (which is representative of all staff) provides the assessment and assists in developing the content and methods necessary to meet these training needs. The training committee activity is only the beginning of effective communication. It must ask where the communication problems are and decide what can be done to solve them. Each staff level has communication needs specific to it, with various ways of best meeting these needs. The following examples are not intended to be mutually exclusive as it is recognized that some of these training needs will cross over staff levels.

ADMINISTRATION

1. Inter-agency communication - Development of better working relations with other service agencies. These are agencies, such as the state employment office, the schools, etc., whose aid is necessary in the rehabilitation of the correctional client. Administrators might be asked: What agencies' help do we require, but have trouble getting? How can we improve their understanding of our needs? In what reciprocal ways can we maintain active communication? Training sessions involving people from other agencies might lead to greater mutual understanding.

2. Public relations - Involvement of the public in the rehabilitative process is one of the prime techniques for increasing social change beneficial to better social functioning on the part of the correctional client. Development of innovative and viable methods for communicating the needs of correctional organizations within the community are a prime responsibility of the administrative staff members. Training questions which should be asked are: What image has the correctional program

projected in the community? In what ways could this image be improved? In what concrete ways could the members of the community be involved in the community rehabilitative process?

3. Organizational communication - The administrators must be able to communicate effectively up and down their staff line if they are to insure that the goals of the organization will be met. They should be able to understand the variance between organizational goals and the immediate problems of supervisory and direct service staff members. Bringing the solution of these problems and the organization's goals closer and closer together should be an ongoing objective of administrative communication. Open sessions with other staff members would provide feedback on the relative effectiveness of intra-organizational communication. Questions which should be asked: What routes of communication within the organization have been established? Are they really effective in relaying information and problems? Do solutions move as quickly as they are needed? Do other staff members feel that communication "from above" is only a formality, or do they really benefit from their interaction with the administrative level?

SUPERVISORY

1. The link - The supervisory staff members act as a link between the organizational planning of the administrative level and the action at the client service level. They must enable the direct-service level staff members to understand and act upon the organizational objectives as esposed by the administrative level. On the other hand, they have a responsibility to accurately relay feedback from the direct-service level to the administrative level so that it can modify and improve the services of the overall correctional setting.

2. Public involvement - The supervisory staff may likely have a large responsibility for public involvement. They are in a unique position of being able to translate overall program goals into the direct terms of actual service. Thus they may likely be able to reach and involve large numbers of the public in the community correctional program. The training needs which may be required might be:

a. public speaking;
b. use of audio-visual materials;
c. community organization techniques;
d. developing relationships with a rural community; and/or
e. reporting feedback in community reactions.

3. Teaching - The supervisory level is likely to teach various skills, especially to the direct-service staff. For instance, report writing might be taught by them in a simulated situation. The supervisor might list the characteristics of a case, or have another person play the role of a correctional client. Then each trainee could be required to write a report; these would be read, criticized, and suggestions made for better reports.

DIRECT SERVICE

1. Intra-agency communication-- The direct-service staff must increase its ability to observe and pass on successes and problems which occur in their day-to-day experiences. Report writing, staff meetings, etc., must effectively communicate these problems which they face which should come to the attention of the other staff levels.

2. Public relations - As closest link with the community, the direct-service staff must be trained to maximize the communication which will increase all forms of community involvement. Do the direct-service staff

members follow up contacts made in the field? Does each direct-service staff member have a significant number of community contacts who can aid in the rehabilitative process?

3. Report writing - Direct-service staff write many reports. Skill will increase their efficiency and ability to communicate useful information to administration and others. Are reports merely collections of marginally useful details? Should more selective writing be encouraged and taught? Selection of essentials and reporting on basically significant materials will increase the value of direct-service report writing.

4. Interviewing - Ability to communicate with correctional clients is basic. Direct-service staff must be equipped with the best methods and techniques for gathering information, and most importantly - enabling change. Training here should center around how one enables change - use of counseling, community involvement, and the myriad of other techniques.

Management skills are level-specific; only supervisory and administrative staff members need training experiences in techniques of supervision, enablment, administrative decision-making, etc. There are some skills or training needs, though, which may be felt at two or more levels, but which may be feasible at only one level. Limits of time or money, or pressure for other training experiences may not allow the training officer to work with each level. In that case, he should set up a system wherein he would train one level and this training would, in turn, "percolate" to another level. For instance, skills in report writing are necessary at administrative, supervisory, and direct-service levels. Should training at all levels not be feasible, the training officer might concentrate his efforts on the supervisory level. Then the supervisors could pass on their skills in report writing to the direct-service staff. In order to enable such a percolation of skills, the training officer must make special effort to aid the trained level in identifying the generic concepts of their training experience. Then they will be able to apply their skills to the specific sorts of problems and tasks which occur at another level.

These ways are some of the most useful by which the training officer through skill development can minimize all ill effects of a heterogeneous staff, and maximize the positive job function distribution made possible by multiple staff/skill backgrounds. Within any community correctional organization, however, there is bound to be conflict which arises from the basically different skills, backgrounds, and sets of ideas held by the various staff members. The sharpness of heterogeneity in the rural community correctional setting may make the conflict more intense and less conducive to effective operations. Besides minimizing its ill effects and channeling the productive aspects of heterogeneity, the training officer should assist in developing a sense of common goals among the correctional staff members. In orientation training, a firm sense of the overall correctional goals should be established. New staff members may carry a residue of pre-conceptions about what the rural community correctional setting is trying to accomplish. Moreover, the more immediate, day-to-day goals of a given job function or staff level must be clearly understood. In order that these goals take on greater importance and do not become mere words, they must be more than intellectually understood.

Similarly, skill development must constantly examine what the goals of the correctional organization are. More importantly, the staff members must measure their work performance against the stated program goals; are their efforts really those which will most effectively serve these goals? Management level training has a responsibility to examine the operational goals of the correctional organization for their effectiveness in reaching the overall program goals (i.e., rehabilitation, decreased recidivism, etc.). Does just effective counseling sufficiently reduce recidivism, or would increased community involvement add to the rehabilitation of correctional clients?

When the heart of the matter is reached, all staff members, in both orientation and staff development, must come to grips with their real priority of goals. The training officer must guide staff members to a self-examination of the goals upon which they actually act. The primary training objective here is to enable staff members to measure their real goals against the actual goals of the organization. Once again, the nine-fold chart can be of great assistance here. Staff members would be asked to list their own daily operational goals, and what they perceive to be the goals of other staff members. Then, armed with a careful and introspective study of management of what the overall program goals really are, the training officer would lead a discussion session in which the group determines whether the various goals are effective in meeting the overall program goals. Often, operational goals may be effective; other goals may be unrealistic or the residue of old habits; still others may once have been effective but now need to be restructured in the light of new overall program goals.

Rural Social System

The fourth major uniqueness of the rural correctional setting is its rural social structure. In many ways, the rural social system is the most unique and most important aspect of the rural community correctional setting. As stated previously, the relationship of the community to its correctional organization is crucial. The President's Crime Commission Report states that over two-thirds of all correctional clients are presently in community correctional settings. Increased growth in community corrections is further attested to by its economy, its greater effectiveness, and its ability to more rapidly integrate the correctional client. And, just as community corrections is becoming more important, so also is the importance of understanding and being well-equipped to deal with the community increasing for the correctional worker. This is especially true in the rural community where many of the staff may be new to the community, of urban training, and unfamiliar with the idiosyncrasies of the rural community setting.

All staff members should be involved in training centering around the rural community. Each staff level has its various relationships with the

community, and each level should be equipped to deal with it effectively. In rural communities the direct-service staff represent the community correctional organization to the people of the community, since they deal directly with the community. It is their task to act as a bridge between the community people and resources, and the correctional client who is seeking reintegration. Therefore, they must understand the community and be able to use it fully as a partner in rehabilitating the correctional client.

Training the rural community and its social structure should be a part of both orientation and staff development. The new staff member will require the most extensive training in order to understand the total community structure as well as the correctional organization's relationship to it. Since the operational premise is that many rural community correctional settings have previously lacked training programs, it follows that there will be a great need for in-service training related to the community and its social structure. This is especially the case as the community takes on greater importance as an active force in the reintegration of the correctional client into his society.

Not only does the training officer have a training responsibility at all staff levels of the correctional organization, he must also be involved in training the community. A relationship between the community and the correctional setting is a two-way street -- both sides must be enabled to understand the other. Only in this way can the training officer ensure that the community becomes an active part of the rural community correctional effort.

Now, what is unique about the rural social structure? Three major topics have previously been discussed:

(1) That social structure is tightly knit and cohesive;

(2) That relationships are informal but highly defined (individuals with authority may wield great power without any formal recognition); and

(3) That the community is liable to be highly self-reliant in its dealings with community problems.

As a consequence, three major goals in training correctional staff to work with the community are evident:

(1) Staff must learn techniques which will allow them to penetrate the community. Until the community accepts the correctional staff, no cooperation can be achieved;

(2) The correctional staff must learn who both the influential and the troublesome are the leaders in the community, and deal with them so as to achieve maximum cooperation; and

(3) The self-reliance of the community must be channeled to the best uses of the correctional staff.

To achieve these goals, the training officer might design a training program like the following:

A. Overview

This is especially important for orientation of new staff members, although it would be a useful beginning in staff development. The physical community should be presented in terms of maps, geography, slides, etc. Then a really intensive tour would be an excellent way to apply the growing knowledge about what the community is really like. Important things which should be seen are:

(1) Factors in the economic base: industrial, agricultural, commercial. (These provide ideas on where a correctional client might find a job, job training, etc., and would also guide the correctional officer in understanding the kinds of job and training which will be applicable in this community.)

(2) Agencies and social institutions: welfare, employment office, extension service, public health, YM-YWCA, churches, schools, scouts, campfire, 4-H, grange hall. (These are formal institutions which the correctional client may utilize to gain services, advice, counseling, recreation, etc., for himself and his family. They also are important doors by which he can gain access to the people of the community and begin the reintegration process. The correctional officer must be familiar with them all and on good terms with their staffs if he is to be able to act as a broker between the agency resources and the correctional offender.)

(3) Informal social institutions: cafes, bowling alleys, poolrooms, and the like. (These are endemic to each community. However, once one knows the community, it becomes increasingly obvious where the townspeople congregate for informal socializing, and is often there that much of the most significant communication goes on between the community people. Moreover, they may be most at ease in such situations, so these informal gatherings are often the best areas of intervention for community correctional workers.)

(4) Trouble areas: taverns, rural slums (such as old logging camps, run-down parts of town, etc.), and any others. (Knowing where potential trouble might crop up is very important in dealing with correctional clients. Community programs tending to minimize the negative aspects of the rural community could be heavily backed by rural correctional systems. An excellent way to learn how and where disturbances occur is for each trainee to spend some time patrolling with local law-enforcement officers (sheriff's deputies and police).

After seeing the physical aspects of the community, a second broad area which should be well understood is the particular idiosyncrasies of the community. If one is not knowledgeable in this area, an excellent way to gain information is to invite a local community member to speak at a training session. The ideal speaker is the long-time resident who has a deep sense of the community's past and present way of life. The trainees' goal should be to understand any historical, cultural, ethnic, racial, or other factors which affect the community life. They should be alert to local festivals, fairs, and other occurrences of community importance. This knowledge is important from two standpoints. One, the correctional staff must understand and be able to work with these local idiosyncrasies. If community people see the correctional worker fitting into their way of life, the potential for cooperation will be much greater. Two, the correctional worker must be conversant with the unique cultural patterns of the community so that he can translate them to the correctional client. The client himself must learn to deal with these idiosyncrasies; some may be a hindrance, such as ethnic prejudice, while others may be an asset, such as similar cultural ties.

B. Community Relationships

Once an overall understanding of the community is gained, the next training goal is to enable the trainees to establish necessary relationships with community people. First of all, if some relationships already exist, individual trainees should be introduced at opportune times. Individuals, not groups, should meet community people. Special introductions are much less effective than a "spontaneous" meeting in a cafe, store, or gas station. In order to involve community persons in correctional programs they should be involved in the training process. A slide presentation depicting the correctional process is an excellent way to make community people feel more a part of their community correctional process (see page 17). Moreover, the wide appeal of a slide presentation will draw and hold attention much better than will many other devices. As meetings between correctional workers and townspeople takes place, each trainee should concentrate on following up his acquaintanceships. Just knowing the interests, problems, families, and work of community people will aid the correctional worker in getting to know them. Discussions among the trainees every few days will reveal "problem" people in the community who need to be approached differently; supportive community members should be cultivated. Eventually a representation of community people should be invited to help the correctional organization. When they arrive, the "community thrust" should be explained to them -- its economy, effectiveness, and greater chance for rehabilitation. Then they should be told that without their advice and help the efforts of the correctional program will be greatly impaired. Specifically, they should be asked to help identify training needs as a first step. Their participation in this process will greatly increase their own commitment to community corrections, and lead to the opening up of new avenues for rehabilitation of the correctional client within the community both through themselves and through their friends and associates.

This first fairly informal group of community people may be an excellent nucleus for later community relations. If possible, they should be encouraged to form some sort of citizen's advisory committee. They could act as an advisory and liaison body for the community correctional organization. The training officer must help the correctional staff to give really meaningful roles to these community people so that their efforts will be perceived by them as worthwhile. He may also work with the citizen's advisory committee when it meets to help its members understand the correctional setting and what they can do to make it better in their community.

All through this process, the staff should be maintaining,and extending the scope of their acquaintance within the community. These men and women are members of the community into which the correctional client is trying to fit; unless the correctional staff itself fits into the community, it can be of little help in enabling the reentry of the correctional client. As the community people get to know the correctional staff personally, they should also begin to learn something of what they do, what their goals are, and what the community can do to help the correctional system as a whole. The citizen's advisory council can be extremely helpful in passing on, from an interested layman's point of view, what the correctional agency is doing. This council, together with the staff, should be intent upon establishing the reputation and an understanding of community corrections, both so necessary if it is to gain full community support. The correctional staff should continue to involve itself in community life. Staff members need to be involved in community activities which are interesting and worthwhile. Such things as P.T.A., Boy Scouts, various civic clubs, and others, are all organizations where the correctional staff members can make real contributions to their community. At the same time, an increasing number of community people will see these correctional staff members as integral parts of the total community life.

This constant building of solid community relationships is done for several purposes. For one, the correctional system and its staff are part of the community. To function effectively they must know the community, feel part of its daily life, and be perceived by the community as "insiders" not as members of an outside agency. Furthermore, the more enlightened community citizen will realize the part the whole community must play in enabling community corrections. The correction's staff has the responsibility of aiding, advising, and doing supportive work which will encourage these people (such as the citizen's advisory council) to establish understanding and support throughout the community. The total effort of staff and citizens should be brought to bear initially on the rehabilitative process. If any correctional client is to reenter the community, he must enjoy a full relationship to it. He and his family must have access to a home, job, school, medical help, churches, credit, social facilities, and community support. These are not gifts but

opportunities which the community must afford the offender. Without the rights and responsibilities of a citizen, he cannot be expected to feel or act like a citizen. And the only way he can gain access to such resources is through the community. The enablers of these resources are the staff members and the supportive citizens. They can give the correctional client entry to the community, as well as the advice and counseling which will link him to the community resources he needs. Such linkages include on-the-job training in local businesses or industry, which would allow him to earn a living while increasing his ability to hold and advance on a job. Another linkage would be in housing; proper housing at fair prices would allow him and his family to live decently and with self-respect. In the schools, teachers and administration must be equipped to handle and resolve any problems which might develop between the children of the correctional client and other children. Visits to the school by correctional staff members could possibly help the children in their attitudes. Films and slide presentations help children to understand that even though a grown-up makes a mistake he can yet learn to be a functioning member of society. Children usually echo their parents; but if their own true feelings can be appealed to in such a situatinn, the training officer may be able to gain friendship and acceptance for the offender's children. Provision for continuing education may mean the offender can go on to a better job and a successful community life. The correctional staff member who knows the churches and ministers in town can help the correctional client establish a relationship there. Credit, too, can be crucial commodity in allowing the correctional client to

re-establish himself in community life. The references of local community people and staff members might encourage community businesses to extend credit. Most of all, though, the correctional staff should be trained in establishing maximum community participation in the community correctional process. The community must accept an active responsibility for the rehabilitation of its own correctional clients. The correctional staff, through its training and relationships with community people, must help the community to provide both tangible and intangible support needed by the correctional client for his successful and permanent reentry into his own rural community.

The ultimate goal of all this community involvement in the rehabilitative process is to increase the community's capability to assist and accept the correctional client. In other words, this involvement is aimed at bringing about social, attitudinal, and structural changes within the community. If wider variations of behavior can be understood, the community will be on its way to decreased criminal offenses. The training officer's role throughout is to guide the corrections staff to act as enablers. As they involve the community in the process of rehabilitation, their increased understanding through training will implement the social changes necessary for added means of reintegration for the correctional client.

B. OPERATIONAL PHASE

Thus far we have talked about the Developmental Phase of the training program. The second phase of the training process puts these developmental plans into effect -- the Operational Phase. The first thing to be considered in putting the training program into final operation is to insure that all physical facilities and arrangements are ready and appropriate.

Time should be allotted for the training session and the trainees excused from their regular tasks. The proper amount of time should be decided on beforehand so that there will be enough for all parts of the training session: presentation, audio-visual materials, problem solving, discussion, etc. Besides the consideration of time for the trainees, any resource people, too, should be carefully arranged for so that they will have time for briefing, and preparation.

1. Physical Facilities - The physical layout, including preparation of the room and presentation equipment and the setting up of furniture, should be ready prior to the training session. First, adequate space should be set aside. It should have ample ventilation to accommodate the number of people who will be involved; smoking should be considered. There should be adequate light, but it should also be readily adjustable for slide presentations, films, and other audio-visual aides. It is very important to have the proper audio-visual equipment for the presentations; for instance, does the tape recorder play the size tape which the guest speaker is bringing? All other materials, such as paper, pencils, copies of printed matter, forms, etc., should be anticipated and in

sufficient number. The tables and chairs should be arranged in a pattern appropriate to the presentation method; some sort of circle is best for discussions; or if an audio-visual aid is to be used, everyone should be able to see and hear easily. Too few or uncomfortable chairs can completely deaden the impact of an otherwise good training session. Comforts, such as coffee, convenient food services, rest-rooms, and so on, will make training participants much more receptive to the content of the training session. Even such mundane things as parking space and ash-trays are really training necessities in the Operational Phase.

2. Methods - Different methods are, of course, fitted to different content. Each method has certain requirements of time, space, participation, equipment, etc. Depending on the desired change and its requisite content matter, the methods of presenting training programs vary. The most complex method, the institute is a series of methods linked to provide a broad, yet intensive experience. It is usually several days' long and may combine discussions, workshops, lectures, problem-solving situations, etc. It can have a deep effect on a large number of trainees. Moreover, it can utilize the resources of many people and provide exchange or forum for sharing of experiences and ideas.

The workshop is an intense problem-solving situation. In it, people work together on a problem, trying to relate the content of the problem to a practical solution. The dynamics of the group are directed by a common goal, i.e., the solution of the problem, and the group's perception of its dynamics while working on the problem is the essential ingredient of workshop operation. The training experience depends to a large extent on the problem chosen -- real life situations force group members to combine their experiences and their intellectual conceptualizations; this causes fundamental reexamination of the effectiveness of their present set of assumptions and, with proper reinforcement, opens the door to productive change in the training situation. The composition of the workshop determines the kinds of cross-fertilization and solutions that will form the training experience. On a highly defined problem, generic to one discipline, a workshop that is largely homogeneous in the training of its participants may be productive for its intensity and complete examination of the given discipline's approach to that problem. In most problem-solving situations, however, the workshop group whose training backgrounds are heterogeneous will contribute a greater range of ideas and a high degree of cross-fertilization between the workshop attendants. The workshop is one of the most productive training methods for the rural correctional content because it is a training experience which simulates the kind of problem approach which ideally should be set as a component of the change initiated by the training program. Further, it effects this change not only intellectually, but more importantly it provides a deep experience which will be more meaningful and lasting to the trainees.

The seminar has limited use in the in-service training situations found in rural correctional settings. It is more academically oriented and suited to a group who can read material around a concept or pattern and discuss and criticize the contributions of these readings in a group situation. Its potential for change is limited, although its intellectual content may be high.

A third method is the discussion group. It is a looser form of group interaction than can be attained in the workshop. Its effectiveness is enhanced when it follows some stimulus, such as a lecture, a slide presentation, field experience, etc. This gives a common ground for an exchange of impressions and a development of the worth of the stimulus.

A fourth important method is the use of summary and reporting. This method follows a discussion or workshop and provides cross-communication among groups of the ideas and findings which they developed in their group situation. The requirement of reporting also prevents unnecessary digression in discussions; and it will help the discussion groups to synthesize and keep essentials at the forefront of their discussion. The very job of synthesizing the workings of a group forces the discussion group and its leader to a reexamination of the really essential components of a discussion and impresses them more deeply in the process.

There are various techniques which can be utilized within these methods by the training officer. Direct teaching, though traditional, is less effective than many other techniques. Its impact tends to be transitory since the involvement of the trainees in the training process is passive. It may provide a useful stimulus for more active techniques, such as the discussion group or the workshop. Questioning is a technique which can have a high potential for change among the trainees. It is a more active form of training and demands self-examination and appraisal which thus open more avenues for permanent change among the trainees. It should be carefully directed so that it neither becomes threatening to the participants nor deviates from questioning most beneficial to the training process. Case materials provide a highly valuable form of simulating real life experiences which will have a deep impact on the trainees. Life-like examples are provided which can be dealt with in problem-solving situations. This brings to light the various methods of dealing with correctional situations and opens them to constructive criticism. Moreover, newly learned concepts can be explained and then practiced through the use of case material. This technique provides opportunities for the trainees to play and practice new roles; it is one of the best ways to achieve new habit patterns and to effect change. Field experiences are, of course, an even more vivid technique of utilizing case examples. They provide real-life practice of conceptual experiences learned in other training contexts. Field experiences provide a highly effective last step in internalizing training content and effecting change among trainees by offering practical application of learned concepts.[5]

While the goal of the training officer is to encourage self-expression and questioning, he must always keep the training objective -- that of change -- foremost in his mind.

---

[5] The United States Air Force has developed two very interesting publications which contain valuable information in preparing and conducting training sessions:

(1) The Air Force Staff Officer, Air University, United States Air Force, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama

(2) Conference Leadership Air Force Manual 50-8, United States Air Force

C. EVALUATION

If one considers the training process to be something of an upward spiral, the last part of each revolution is the Evaluative Phase. One begins with the Developmental Phase, moves to the Operational Phase, and then completes the cycle with the Evaluative Phase. The goal of evaluation is to measure how well the training program met its objectives. That is, did change take place in the trainees? Is their knowledge increased; has their behavior changed; do the correctional clients receive better service?

When the training officer has a measure of the effectiveness of a given training program, he can determine in what areas it has been successful, and in what areas modifications need to be made if desired change is to come about. Evaluation thus helps the training officer to define and redefine the training objectives. Moreover, individuals in the training process may have greater or lesser success in achieving desired change. With evaluative material, the training officer can tailor the training program to fit the requirements of the staff members as they move through the training process. Evaluation also allows for a checkup on long-range effects of training. Have changed attitudes and behavior become a permanent part of the staff members' patterns of operation. Or have the staff members reverted to old patterns of behavior and ways of thinking?

Change must be measured on many scales:

1. Attitudinal: Do the trainees perceive situations and solutions in line with desired attitudinal changes? Are their attitudes indeed changed, but not reflective of the training program's goals?

2. Knowledge: Do staff members have new skills, new techniques, new ways of communicating which they previously lacked? Are they able to do new things, or old things in innovative ways?

3. Organizational Change: Have structural changes in the organization come about as a result of the training program? Do management staff members set up correctional programs in new ways?

4. Behavioral Change: Are staff members approaching and solving problems in new ways in line with desired changes which the training program sought?

Evaluation is both formal and informal. Questionnaires and checklists are best suited for formal evaluation. The training officer should question and observe to see if new behavior, attitudes, and knowledge have really been put into practice. Evaluation is basically feedback; it is communication to the training officer which allows him to measure the success of any phase of the training program. What needs to be asked: has desired change happened? Did the trainees, in fact, show increased knowledge, greater sensitivity, and positive attitude and behavioral changes that increased their skills in working with correctional clients?

TARGETS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

JOINT COMMISSION
ON
CORRECTIONAL MANPOWER
AND TRAINING

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, incorporated in the District of Columbia, consists of nearly a hundred national, international, and regional organizations and public agencies which have joined together to attack one of the serious social problems of our day: How to secure enough trained men and women to bring about the rehabilitation of offenders through our correctional systems and thus prevent further delinquency and crime.

Recognizing the importance of this problem, the Congress in 1965 passed the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act, which authorizes the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration to make grants for a broad study of correctional manpower and training. The Joint Commission is funded under this Act and through grants from private foundations, organizations, and individuals.

Commission publications available:

Targets for In-Service Training, papers of a seminar on in-service training. October 1967, 68 pp.

Differences That Make the Difference, papers of a seminar on implications of cultural differences for corrections. August 1967, 64 pp.

TARGETS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

**Report of a Seminar
Convened in Washington, D. C.
May 4-5, 1967 by the
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
and the Joint Commission
on Correctional Manpower and Training**

Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training
1522 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20005

October 1967

FOREWORD

The need for effective in-service training is felt by every group of personnel working in the rehabilitation of the public offender. As new knowledge develops, it must be transmitted. New groups of personnel appear on the job regularly and require training. As the objectives in corrections change direction, training must translate that change for all workers in the field.

In order to explore the complex terrain of training, the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training convened a seminar in Washington, D. C., in May 1967. The meeting was the responsibility of Benjamin Frank and Nick Pappas, director and assistant director respectively of the Commission's task force on in-service training, recruitment, and retention of correctional personnel. Assistance in planning was given by Rudy Sanfilippo, director of the task force on prospects and perspectives for corrections, and by William F. Meredith, director of the task force on strategies for action. Dr. Frank chaired the meeting. The report was edited by Roma K. McNickle.

Participants represented a wide variety of interests. Correctional administrators from eastern states were invited to act as sounding boards for the field. Also invited were personnel from regional offices of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency and the Council of State Governments, and the regional organizations for higher education — the New England Board of Higher Education, the Southern Regional Education Board, and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. These persons often serve as consultants in their respective regions, and they will be called upon increasingly to provide advice and direction for in-service training for corrections.

Presented in the following pages are the papers given at the seminar, together with a brief introductory statement. The fact that speakers and discussants came from private industry, public agencies, private organizations, universities, and corrections indicates the variety of settings in which training takes place today.

The consensus was that the broad spectrum of experience reported would be useful to many groups who are interested in training. The Joint Commission believes that this publication, which results from the seminar, will have special utility for training directors and administrators who have the difficult job of planning the in-service training of correctional personnel. The variety of approaches presented in the book will, it is hoped, give many ideas for a variety of training efforts.

The Joint Commission expresses its appreciation to all the participants. Mr. Carl Kludt has kindly given the Commission permission to use his copyrighted charts. Anyone wishing to reproduce them elsewhere must have the consent of the author.

Special appreciation is due to the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, which provided a grant to assist in financing the seminar.

A Commission member organization, the National Education Association, graciously made available the room in which the seminar met.

The Joint Commission is pleased to present this publication to the correctional community and to all persons elsewhere who are interested in training.

William T. Adams
Associate Director
Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training

CONTENTS

Page

INTRODUCTION ... 1
Benjamin Frank and Nick Pappas

OVERVIEW OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING ... 3
Carl B. Kludt

Discussion ... 13
Charles W. Matthews

TRAINING METHODS ... 15
Lyman K. Randall

Discussion ... 25
Marshall Fels

COLORADO TRAINING PROGRAMS ... 29
Howard Higman

Discussion ... 36
Kenneth Polk

ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR TRAINING ... 39

Discussion ... 42
David C. Jelinek

EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING ... 47
Carol H. Weiss

Discussion ... 55
David Twain

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SEMINAR FOR CORRECTIONS ... 57
Vincent O'Leary
Ronald W. Vander Wiel

Discussion ... 64

INTRODUCTION

Benjamin Frank and Nick Pappas

In virtually every occupation and profession today, central themes of concern are the educational preparation, in-service training, and development of the manpower involved. In industry, the rapid advance of technology and automation has created a demand for higher levels of education and skills among workers. At the same time, the need for professionals and technicians in education, health, counseling, and the broad spectrum of other community services is growing faster than the educational system can produce them. At the national level, a great deal of effort is going into a continuous and long-range study of the manpower resources of the country. Along with this is being developed a national policy dealing with the upgrading of educational levels and skills as well as with the distribution and most effective utilization of national manpower resources. In effect, the manpower problem is becoming defined more in terms of an educational and training crisis than in terms of manpower shortages.

Corrections has not only been caught up in this complex of social and economic change but it is also feeling, more directly than in the past, the combined impact of new concepts and techniques in management, the technologies underlying the application of systems analysis to social problems, and the results of research on differential effectiveness of programs. Even the traditional boundaries which kept corrections confined within conventional limitations of institutions, probation, and parole are undergoing considerable reexamination. Implied in all of this change are some very critical issues relating to utilization of professional and nonprofessional personnel, the validity of existing formulas for staffing correctional agencies, and the kinds of in-service training that will contribute most effectively to the programmatic changes which seem imminent.

Among the major problems facing correctional administrators, in-service training undoubtedly has a very high priority. In-service training is both a basic function of management and an essential factor in the solution of correctional manpower problems. From this point of view, the concept of in-service training assumes more sophisticated proportions and reaches beyond conventional practice of on-the-job training.

In-service training, although it focuses on present problems, is also concerned with the future. The training process is both a means of achieving immediate goals and a method of preparing personnel so that they will have

---

Mr. Frank is director and Mr. Pappas assistant director of the Joint Commission's task force on recruitment, in-service training, and retention of correctional personnel.

the flexibility to modify their job behavior in line with future requirements. In this sense, in-service training is not a one-time event in the career of the employee but a vehicle for continuous growth.

So viewed, in-service training becomes a method of achieving planned change in both the employee and the correctional agency. The manager is central to this change and must be involved in effecting it if in-service training is to have relevance.

The importance of and present concern for in-service training gave rise to the seminar reported in this publication. The major focus was on the definition and objectives of in-service training, the problems involved in the selection of training methods, and the evaluation of training programs. The intent was not to develop specific content for in-service training programs but rather to suggest some general principles and guidelines for planning such programs for correctional agencies.

An Overview of In-Service Training: Definitions, Objectives, and Adaptations

Carl B. Kludt

The Systems Approach

First, I want to explain what is meant by "systems approach." This is a term you hear often nowadays. It is aerospace language, but there is really nothing new about it. It is simply a way of organizing one's thinking, a way of organizing a logical approach to the solution of a problem. In this case, the problem would be how to set up an in-service training program.

Figure 1 shows systems relationships, using a three-level breakdown into system, subsystem, and unit. The first example shows a TV set as the system, the video circuit as the subsystem, and a unit as the picture tube. This could be broken down further into sub-unit assemblies. The second uses the breakdown in terms of a program, with the objective as the system, goals as the subsystem, and targets as the units. Still another example is a game like football, where the objective is to win, the goal is to make touchdowns, and the unit is the play. In terms of the systems approach to training, we can think of the training program broken down into projects and then into action units.

Figure 2 illustrates the process of developing a training program. In this diagram, the arrows move clockwise around to four major steps: research, development, implementation, and evaluation. You will notice that the process of developing a program begins with research and an arrow goes right back to research. In a good training program (you will remember that by program I mean the whole effort, the whole system), when you get to evaluation you have to do more research in order to revise the program so that it does the job. Developing an in-service training program is therefore a continuous process.

Kinds of In-Service Training

There are five kinds of in-service training: attitudinal, organizational, managerial, training for professional staff, and vocational training. I list attitudinal training first because persons come on our staffs through the indoctrination or orientation road. But it is my opinion that, in orientation or indoctrination training, in essence you are *not* orienting the employee to the company; you are *not* telling him about its benefits; you are *not* really answering his questions. What you are actually trying to do is to develop a productive attitude by means of what we call orientation. The truth of the matter is that trainees will remember only 10 percent of what they are told and will ask about these things again and again. The orientation-indoctrination for the new employee is really to set a productive attitude.

Aspects of a Job

Every job can be divided into three parts: the specialty of the individual; the administration, or mechanics, of the job; and the "people aspect" of the job. Any program of training you set up for any group must take into consideration these three aspects.

Mr. Kludt is executive director of the community affairs program of the American Society for Training and Development.

Figure 1

SYSTEMS RELATIONSHIPS

System	T V	Objective	Win	Program	Program
Subsystem	Video	Goal	Touchdown	Project	Vocational Area
Unit	Picture Tube	Target	Play	Action Unit	Workshop/Seminar

Copyright © Carl B. Kludt 1967

The specialty of the individual has to do with the skills required in any particular field of work. In the case of a stenographer, it is typing, shorthand, and filing. In the case of an engineer, it is mathematics and design.

The administration or mechanics of the job must also be broken down and carefully considered. The specialty of the manager, for instance, is to know how to get information, to organize, control, and delegate. The mechanics of the manager's job involves paperwork mostly, but he must have a program to get the paperwork done.

And then there is that area which is very difficult for most of us, the people aspect of the job which is always the X factor in every organization. I'm talking about the way people feel, the way they work with each other, the interpersonal relationships. These are the relationships that have to do with attitudes, morale, and motivation. About 85 percent of the cost of most organizations is in the people area.

Attitudinal Training

A good example of job-related attitudes is what happened in our company about three years ago when we were trying to change employment practices regarding the hiring of persons from minority groups, mainly Negroes and Mexican-Americans. I gathered together the personnel interviewers in our employment section for some T (Training) Group discussions. The question was: How do I act when somebody from a minority group comes in asking for a job? These sessions were set up to help the trainees do everything they could to keep from acting in a discriminatory way. This was really attitudinal training for these people, to help them understand the bias in their attitudes. We probably did not change any prejudices, but we did change behavior. You cannot dig into a person's psyche and remove his prejudices and ways of thinking by training him. All you can do is to make him aware of how he can perform more effectively on the job.

Attitudinal training must be related to performance on the job. If a girl wears a kookie hair-do and she is doing a good job in the back office where few people see her, we really have no right to ask her to change her hair-do. We had one such case. When changes were made, the girl was transferred to one of the front offices, where she handled educational reimbursement programs. Because she was now meeting and dealing with many people, we could talk with her about her appearance and attitudes on the job. If we had done it before, we would have had rebellion and resistance, because appearance and attitudes were not related to her performance on the previous job.

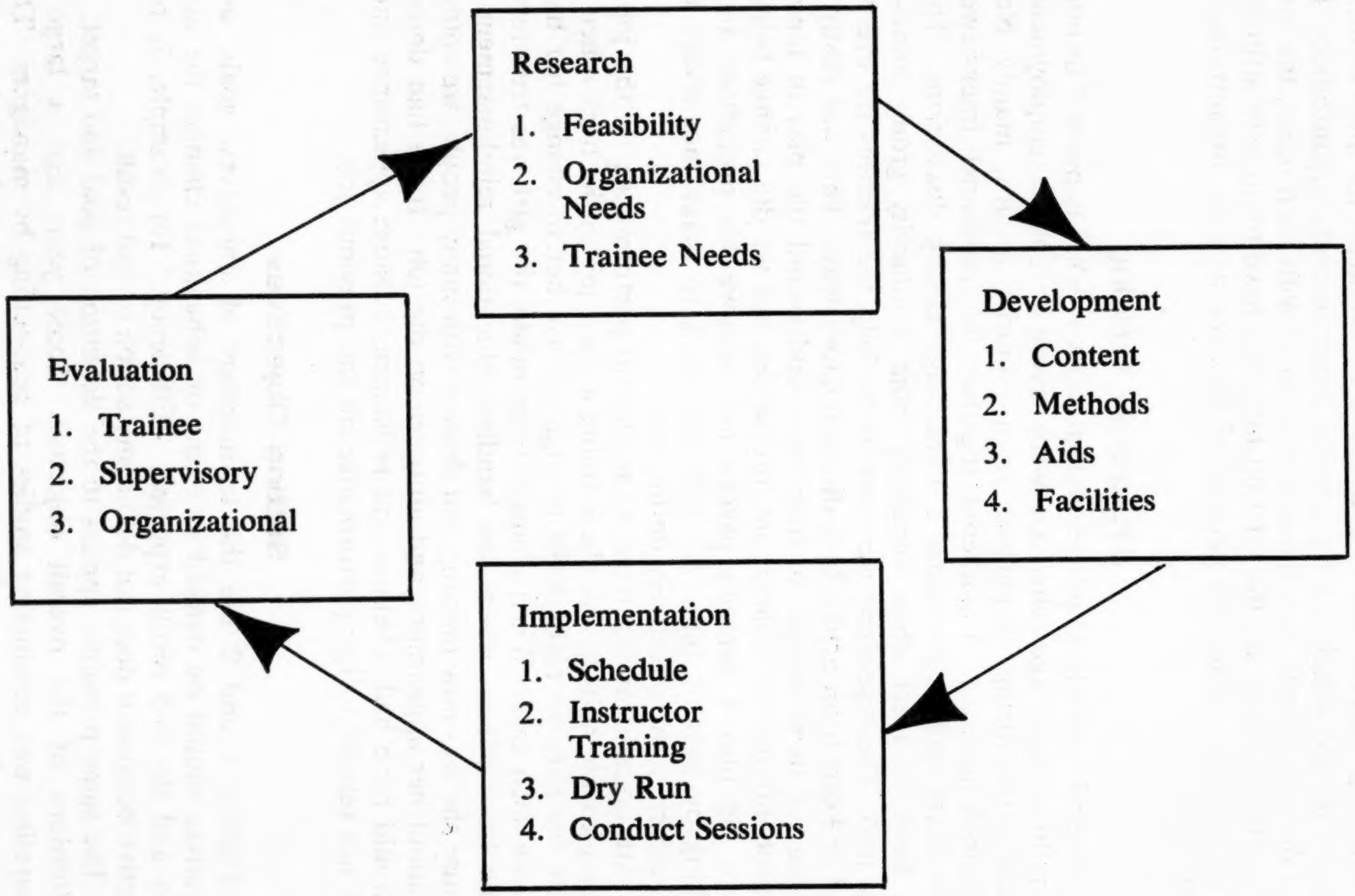
Setting Objectives

Figures 1 and 2 use the terminology of objectives, goals, and targets. Objectives should be defined in terms of behavioral change; the action to be taken and the end result expected. "Efficiency," for example, is not a good objective because it does not define any action or end result.

The same principle applies to the definition of goal and target. These are subdivisions of the overall objective. Some years ago a large industrial corporation was conducting studies of goal-setting by managers. They set up two groups of managers. One group was to set goals for their operations and was told that they would be evaluated at the end of the year to see how well they had achieved the goals. The other group was also instructed to set their goals and told that they would not be evaluated but that each individual manager would decide for himself whether his goals had been met. The

Figure 2

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAINING PROGRAM


Research
1. Feasibility
2. Organizational Needs
3. Trainee Needs
Development
1. Content
2. Methods
3. Aids
4. Facilities
Implementation
1. Schedule
2. Instructor Training
3. Dry Run
4. Conduct Sessions
Evaluation
1. Trainee
2. Supervisory
3. Organizational

Copyright © Carl B. Kludt 1967

experiment showed that the group that was evaluated and the group that evaluated themselves showed equally good performance improvement. It proved also that the process of setting goals was most important in itself.

A goal-oriented function will always outperform a non-goal-oriented function. Training programs with well-defined objectives, goals, and action units will outperform a training program where you get people together just to tell them all about it.

Determining Feasibility

After having established the objectives, goals, and action units, the next element in the development of a training program is the research phase. The first step is to determine whether a particular training program is feasible.

I shall give you an example from a program called Individualized Preparation for Employment Project (IPEP) which I will discuss later. This is a program to prepare hard-core unemployed for jobs. The first thing in my feasibility study was to contact employers in the community to find out whether the jobs were available. If we were going to train for employment, there must be jobs. Otherwise, a training program for employment would not be feasible. This may sound ridiculously rudimentary, but many programs are started to train for jobs that do not exist.

Another aspect of feasibility is the acceptance of the program on the part of those to be trained. In IPEP, we went directly to the neighborhood people and asked them: If this program of training for employment were made available and if the jobs were available, would you, the unemployed and the underemployed, come into the program?

It isn't feasible to set up a program which will be rejected from the start by the people you want to train. In other words, part of the feasibility question is: Can the end results be obtained, and will the trainees accept what you are trying to do? Do they see this as one of their goals? When you have conflicting goals, the result is chaos. There has to be a stake for the trainee in the training. He has to see himself as benefiting from the training offered. This is part of the feasibility study too.

We have talked about feasibility and trainee needs as steps in the research phase of program development. There are also organizational needs to be considered but these are more closely related to organization objectives. Of course, the research phase cannot be extended over too long a period, and often some arbitrary decisions for action and getting started are necessary.

Development of the Program

The development phase of a training program centers mostly around content, methods, and the physical environment in which the training is to be conducted. The most important, however, are the problems of content and methods. These we shall talk about later.

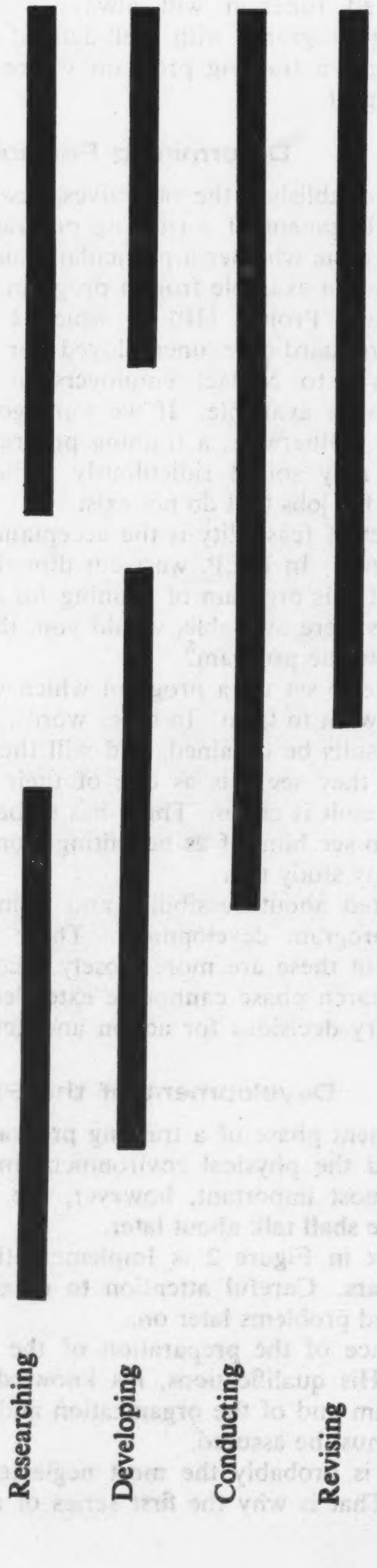
The third box in Figure 2 is Implementation. Right away the scheduling problem appears. Careful attention to details of scheduling will prevent a lot of mix-ups and problems later on.

The importance of the preparation of the training instructor cannot be overemphasized. His qualifications, his knowledge of the content and objectives of the program and of the organization and his skill in using a variety of training methods must be assured.

The dry run is probably the most neglected part of the implementation of the program. That is why the first series of a program is usually so much

Figure 3

TRAINING PROGRAM PLANNING



Copyright © Carl B. Kludt 1967

inferior to the next series. The dry run group should include some management decision-makers who can say, "No, this doesn't go toward our objectives." It should also include some sample trainees who can say, if necessary, "This won't do. They won't buy this." The dry run is really a way of getting some feedback from the sessions. You set up some inputs and get fast feedback.

Evaluation of Training Programs

The fourth box in the diagram is Evaluation, and this is a truly tough problem. Even in industry where you can measure in terms of costs and profits, it is difficult to say how much is due to the training program. When profits go up, it may be that business is good or that training is good. The manager can say, "We did a better job of managing." And the training man can seldom really prove that it was the training program that helped do the trick. What you get by way of evaluation comes from the trainees themselves, from the supervisors and managers, and from organizational trends.

In Figure 3, you see how the steps overlap. No program works out exactly as you planned it, but if you don't plan it, it will not work well at all. So, in beginning to plan, you start with the researching phase which at some point begins to overlay the development stage.

As soon as you start getting information input, you start developing materials that will meet the needs or answer the questions raised by the input information. The basic reason for the research step is to find out what the needs are. This enables you to develop the content and then select the best methods. Then you start the program, but the research is still going on. The reason for this is that, as you conduct the first sessions (the dry runs), you get many kinds of input that call for changes and improvements. In this way, you should be evaluating and revising even before you are halfway through the program.

The thing to keep in mind is that *the job of program building and implementing is never done.* The objectives may remain the same. But the environment of the program may change; the kind of people you are working with may change. Many other factors and situations come up which require revisions and adaptations in the program. If any part of a program does not seem to contribute to your objectives or to behavioral change, throw it out, no matter how much you personally may like it.

Figure 4 is an example of what is called a PERT[1] chart of a training program in operation. It puts together in a model everything we have talked about thus far. In the process of conducting the program, you can get evaluations or feedback in two ways. One is statistical: how many completed the program; how many dropped out and why. The other is feedback from the trainees themselves. Don't let them get away from the last session or even intermediate sessions without doing two things. One is to fill out a very simple form with some "open" questions like: Have you used this on the job yet? How do you expect to use it? What changes would you make in the program? These kinds of questions will give you some idea of how the trainees rate the content and presentations as you move along in the program.

Training through IPEP

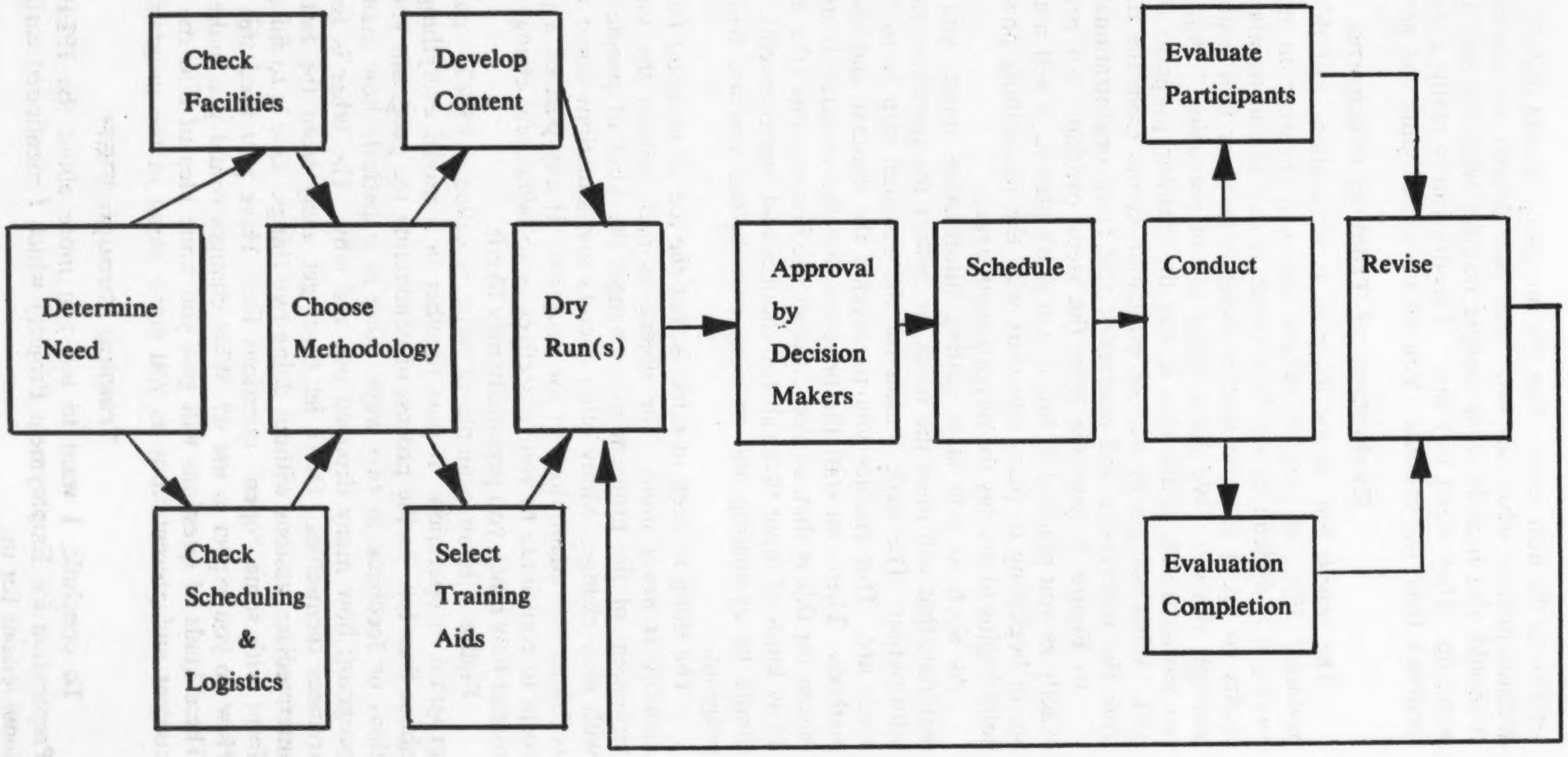
To conclude, I want to tell you more about the IPEP (Individualized Preparation for Employment Project) which I mentioned earlier. It may have some lessons for us.

---

[1] PERT stands for Program Evaluation and Review Technique.

Figure 4

TRAINING PROGRAM UNIT PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION


Determine Need
Check Facilities
Check Scheduling & Logistics
Choose Methodology
Develop Content
Select Training Aids
Dry Run(s)
Approval by Decision Makers
Schedule
Conduct
Evaluate Participants
Evaluation Completion
Revise

Copyright © Carl B. Kludt 1967

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) has over 6,000 members. They are all training and development managers, executives, and specialists. About 80 percent are in industry and commerce, and the rest are in government, universities, and consulting firms. I had started a community liaison task force in our Los Angeles chapter of the ASTD. I got a call from a friend in the Ford Foundation who said, "Carl, what would you do with a 30-year-old male Negro who has never had a job or supported a family, whose family is on welfare, and who hides out in the backyard whenever the welfare worker comes around?"

So, using the methods we've been talking about here, I designed a program for this person and others like him: the hard-core unemployed, the disadvantaged minority citizens, not only Negroes but also the Mexican-Americans who are another seriously disadvantaged group in California. (We have of course some poor Caucasians as well.)

What really is the problem here? In the analysis, I said, "My objective is to get this man into a productive job and into a position where he can help himself."

Then I went through the processes I talked about. Are there jobs to be had? Yes, there were thousands of jobs, some semi-skilled and some unskilled. The problem was that hard-core unemployed and disadvantaged people do exist and they can't relate even to a training program that's available in industry, because their level of achievement is too low. Now this is not necessarily their fault. The point is they haven't had the education; they don't know about the outside world. To them, time is when the sun comes up and when it goes down. Then they have a whole lot of attitudinal and knowledge deficiencies that must be tackled in pretraining and training programs in order to make them employable. So, the end goal or objective was to work out a system that would put them into jobs, jobs that were available.

Now the educational system for years had said: Take this group of courses, and when you get through, you can go out and look for a job. When you look at this thing from an objective point of view, the job comes first, doesn't it? Why train if there are no jobs? Why train if it isn't compatible with the environment of the community?

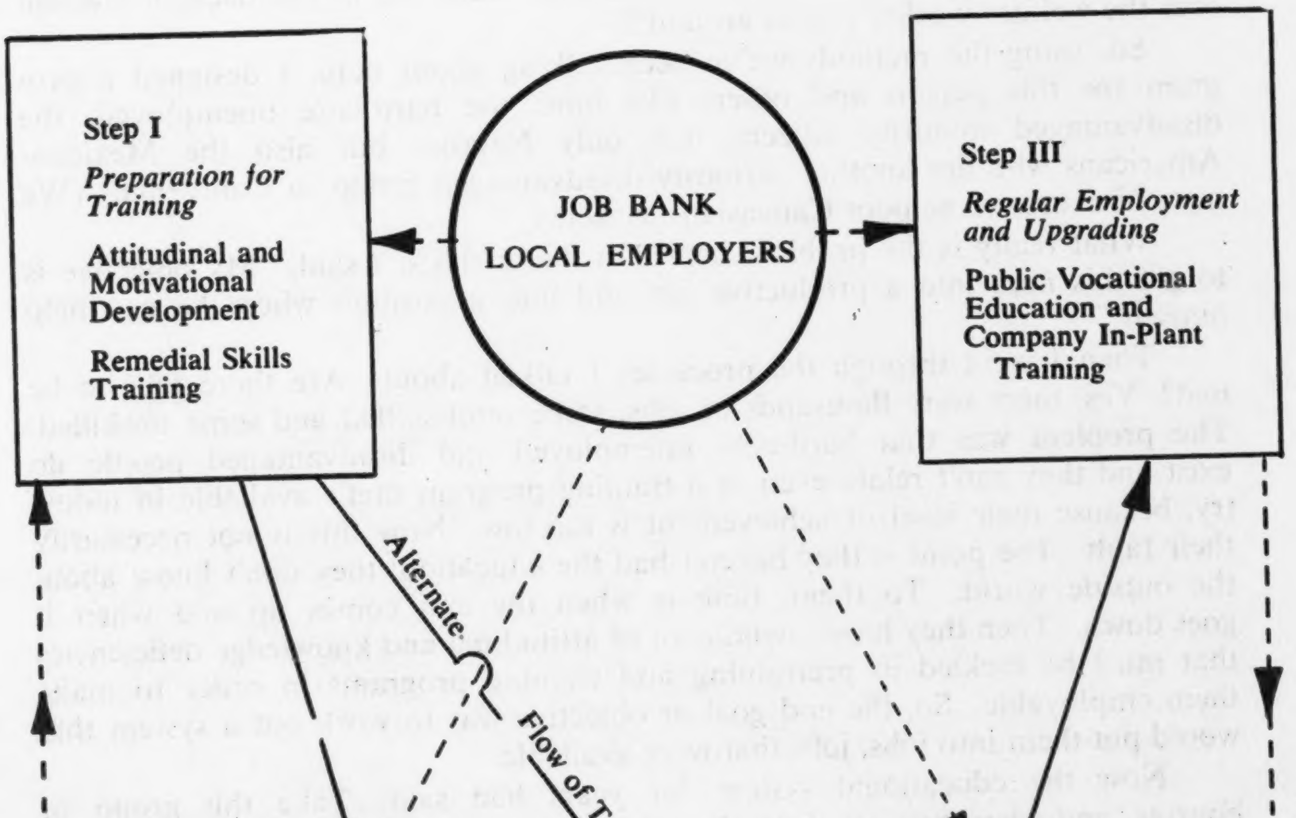
Let me show you very quickly a system that we developed and are using in several communities in Los Angeles. (Figure 5) First, we started building a job bank. We needed to know what jobs are available to this man and train him so he can accept a job. So the job bank goes into each step. It was set up by getting the employers involved. By calling 75 members of the ASTD, in three days we found 40,000 jobs that would be available within nine months at our potential trainee's level. In building our job bank, we specified that jobs must pay at least $100 a week. That's a prestige salary to the hard-core unemployed. You're your own man with a hundred bucks a week.

The Preparation for Employment began with such things as how to get on a bus and put in your fare and get to the right destination so you can get to the job; how to purchase an alarm clock so you're not late; how to dress; how to fill out an application; how to present a positive picture of yourself. Some of the trainers are indigenous to the community. So they can say, "Look, baby, if you won't get your hair cut, split out." The person who lives next door can say, "If you want to get a job, you gotta *do* something."

The pretraining activity is all job-oriented. Remedial instruction in arithmetic and reading is almost always needed. The gas company said it had a lot of good jobs for meter readers. So we asked the gas company what a meter

Figure 5

TRAINING DESIGN FOR HARD-CORE UNEMPLOYED


Step I
Preparation for Training
Attitudinal and Motivational Development
Remedial Skills Training
JOB BANK
LOCAL EMPLOYERS
Step III
Regular Employment and Upgrading
Public Vocational Education and Company In-Plant Training
Alternate
Flow of Trainees
Step II A
Formal Skills and Job Knowledge Training
Continued Attitudinal Development
Step II B
On-Job Skills and Knowledge Training
Continued Attitudinal Development
RECYCLE OF DROPOUTS

Copyright © Carl B. Kludt 1967

reader needs to know. The answer: math. Then we started questioning. What do you mean math? Well, arithmetic. What do you mean arithmetic? Well, addition and subtraction; they don't need multiplication and division. So in Preparation for Training we had attitudinal and remedial training up to the minimum job requirements. After this, our goal was to get them into a skill training program, either in vestibule (formal) training or on-the-job training in the company where they would start getting wages as trainees.

We discovered that one of the problems in most of the previous programs was when a person dropped out, there was no way to get back in. If you get a failing grade in high school, you're through. If you flunk out, you flunk out. But we couldn't have our trainees having this failure experience again. So we set up a recycling plan, which takes them back to whichever level they should go. (See Figure 5.)

We started to prepare for another vocation. If they got into a line of work that really wasn't their dish of tea, they could go back to a step in the program in which they could get preparation for another training program.

That's the system we're using now. It is paying off with people who are considered hard-core unemployed actually going into jobs.

Now, this is probably one of the toughest training jobs I ever got into. The trainees are at all different levels. You have to gather them in and supply (almost on an individual basis) what they need in order to get into jobs. We had in this program most of the elements we have talked about in training — attitudinal, remedial, vocational, and organizational.

DISCUSSION

Charles W. Matthews

It's very appropriate that we are in the National Education Association Building because we are talking about education. I harken back to Ralph Tyler, a professor of mine at the University of Chicago. He used to harp continually on content, objectives, and behavior. As Carl Kludt has said, efficiency is not the goal, but efficiency in a particular setting at a particular time. I think in corrections we certainly have the problem of defining goals discretely in terms of behavior and content.

We have the problem, I think, of that girl in the back room, in the sense that oftentimes our expectations for correctional roles and for training programs are unrelated to the actual task and to the actual location of the employee. To illustrate this, when a new manager takes over a correctional institution, one of the questions I have heard frequently is, "Does he really mean what he says he is going to try to do?" The next question is, "If he really means it, do his middle managers understand that he really means it? And if

---

Mr. Matthews is director of the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections, Southern Illinois University.

they understand that he really means it, will they do it?" Then finally, "Can the correctional officers actually carry out what he really means?"

In operating IPEP, the actual tasks were examined very carefully. They were broken down in regard to contents and behaviors. I think this problem exists in corrections; that is, we need to be able to talk about the contents and behaviors, about specific kinds of content and behavior. When we do agree on what we mean and can state this rather specifically, we then can follow through on the next step of translating these behaviors into job performance, revising and developing so that the goal and objective are related. The function relates to the goal, and the training program accomplishes what we set out to do.

We certainly have this problem of interpersonal relations and morale. Much of this, I would submit, is probably related to what Mr. Kludt has been telling us about the relationships between goals and training and on-the-job performance and product needs, what we actually say that we train for or say that we want. When people are trained to do something that doesn't actually seem to be the task — that is, when they are asked to fix up their hair real nice and then are sent to the back room — morale suffers.

We should talk about what these jobs really are like. What are the problems that come after training? What training programs are really appropriate to the task at hand? What do we really expect? We must attempt to translate all of our thoughts into rather specific sorts of goals and objectives that have the contents and behaviors spelled out to bring these down to the specific targets. We certainly need to write up our goals and to translate them into action. Oftentimes, I think, we have the problem of being fairly well oriented to the general goals but not, perhaps, being able to spell out the exact function of the correctional officer.

I think of our experience in building a training program at Southern Illinois University. Our objective was to train the training officers. We tried to define the goals very carefully. We thought that one of the basic problems for training officers was methodology. So, we built training methodologies into the training program and didn't pay as much attention to the actual content of what was to be offered in a program. We held a dry run, three dry runs, of some of our methodologies, and are midway in the training program now. This is just the point where we are trying to be most guarded in terms of examining very carefully what we are doing. At present, all of our training officers in the program are keeping a diary of their activities and immediate reactions to parts of the program. They will be asked to answer questions on other things after they leave the program and go back into the field. Certainly, the problem of instructor training is a continuous one.

One thing that Mr. Kludt pointed out has a lot of meaning to corrections: we have goals at top-management level that are too often passed on rather summarily to some other people to carry out. The goals are not really shared in any real sense. There isn't enough dialogue carried on so that the instructor really understands what it is he should be trying to get across. In Mr. Kludt's terminology, he doesn't internalize the goals, objectives, and targets.

Then, of course, the problem of evaluation is an ever-present one. I think we were all relieved to hear a rather simple approach to it: that we can use common sense and good judgment, ask appropriate questions, expect the trainees to tell us how they really feel and think, and put considerable weight on their answers. There are, of course, other kinds of evaluation that can be used, but this probably is the most direct method.

TRAINING METHODS

Lyman K. Randall

The subject of this session as given to me was "Training Methods." I think a more appropriate kind of label would be "Learning Methods." To me, training implies something done to somebody, whereas learning is something that happens to me as an individual, something that I'm involved in. Training implies a quantifiable something that happens to somebody else. At a certain point he is educated; he has it, whatever it is you want him to have. Learning implies more of a process that is never complete.

A dilemma for me in coming here was in deciding what learning method to use. If we are going to talk about 15 or 20 different kinds of learning methods, it seems a little ridiculous to me to use one technique to cover about 20 different methods. One of the things that irritates me personally is to attend a training session on listening when the trainer stands up and talks for the whole session.

Another question was: What assumptions shall I make about how much each one of you knows about training techniques or learning methods? I don't know the answer to that either. What are my boundaries? As I saw them they were: roughly 30 people, 45 minutes, 20 methods to cover. My decision was that I would do what I dislike doing and dislike having others do to me: give a lecture. I want to cover about 20 concepts in 45 minutes, and a lecture is one way to do this. We are not going to have a lot of emotional involvement in this. The process I went through was an attempt to find out what it was I was trying to accomplish or hope to accomplish today and what the terminal behavior of our objective is.

Terminal Behavior

One of the classic statements about terminal behavior is a fable which Robert Mager includes in his book originally titled *Preparing Instructional Objectives.*

Once upon a time a sea horse gathered up his seven pieces of gold and set out to seek his fortune. Before he had traveled very far, he met an eel, who said, "Pst! Hey, bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune," said the sea horse proudly. "You're in luck," said the eel. "For four pieces of gold, I'll sell you a speedy flipper that will get you there a lot faster."

"Gee, that's swell," said the sea horse. He put on the flipper and flipped off at twice his normal speed.

Soon he came to a sponge, who said, "Pst! Hey bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune," "Hey, you're in luck. I have here a jet-propelled scooter that I'll let you have for a small fee." So the sea horse parted with the last of his gold pieces and off he went three times as fast.

Finally he came upon a shark, who also said, "Pst! Hey, bud! Where ya going?" "Out to seek my fortune." "Hey, you're in luck. Take this short cut," said the shark, pointing to his open mouth, "and you can save a lot of time." "Gee, thanks," said the sea horse, and off he zoomed into the shark's interior.

The moral of this fable is: If you're not sure of where you're going, you're likely to end up somewhere else.

Mr. Randall is director of training and development for American Airlines.

Figure 1

BASIC LEARNING OBJECTIVES MATRIX

Areas of Behavior to be Changed	Functional Means of Changing Behavior		
	New Learning	Unfreezing and Unlearning	Integrating
Intellectual: Concepts, information	Learning new intellectual concepts, such as what training methods are available.	Unlearning intellectual concepts, such as an outdated method of computer programming.	Integrating formerly separate intellectual concepts, such as combining the laboratory and business simulation methods of training.
Attitudes, Values	Learning new attitudes or values, such as the primacy of training objectives.	Unlearning old attitudes or values, such as not sending enough managers through a training course.	Integrating two formerly unrelated attitudes or values; e.g., "I seem most alive when I am most vulnerable to being hurt."
Skills: Physical	Learning new physical skills, such as type-writing.	Unlearning old skills, such as practicing with a golf pro to correct your back swing.	Combining the two skills of dribbling a basketball and faking with the body.
Intellectual	Learning to manipulate quantities using the new math.	Unlearning the old math.	Learning to speak a new language.
Interpersonal	Confronting another person with whom you have had a conflict.	Unlearning former reaction to conflict, such as flight.	Conflict confrontation and listening to the other person.

I suspect that the concept of terminal behavior, which has grown out of research and experience in the programmed instruction field, is due to many things. One of them may be the knowledge explosion. Basically, the terminal behavior concept is a learning economy tool. As information and concepts have multiplied so rapidly, some help is needed in learning the mass of material that has to be learned. One way to cut through the complexities is to try to describe in behavioral terms what it is that you want people to do after they have gone through a learning experience. That sounds simple, but not after you have struggled through a session where you try to describe in behavioral terms the end result that you're shooting for as a result of a training program. It is an extremely frustrating and emotionally fatiguing experience.

Medium and Message

Marshall McLuhan has come up with a nice aphorism: The medium is the message. In terms of training technique or learning method, this aphorism says some things to me which I would like to share with you. One is that the content isn't everything. Pay attention to the form, the structure, the framework in which the content is being presented.

As an example let's take the lecture method of presentation. Probably more than any other learning method, it strongly implies a definite authority-subservience relationship. You assume someone is expert enough to come in and share with you something meaningful. Sometimes this is a valid assumption. Because the lecture method places the learner in a passive role, we get accustomed to looking on lectures as something that we have to tolerate. A lecture is basically a monologue, not a dialogue. It doesn't involve the learner. The person who gets most involved is the lecturer.

Another point about medium and message is that the content is to some extent governed by the form in which it exists. If you don't know the medium well, you don't know the message. We can relate this to what we are doing today. If I don't know the lecture method well, then perhaps I am mistaken about the message that is getting to you who are involved in the learning situation. I'll be referring back to this aphorism of the medium and the message.

With the variety of learning methods available, how do we determine which to use for a specific situation? As I've said previously, before we select any method, we must first describe what kind of behavior is to be learned. To help visualize the kinds of behavior that may result from effective learning designs, I have prepared a chart. (Figure 1)

In the left-hand column are listed three basic categories of behavioral change. At the first level is the learning of intellectual concepts. It is reasonably easy to verify whether this type of learning has occurred, since we can construct tests which will require the learner to demonstrate his understanding of the new idea.

At the second level is the learning of attitudes and values. Working to change attitudes and values is difficult because they exist largely in the shadows of human interaction. For example, after a specific learning experience has occurred, we may wish to determine whether a given individual has changed his attitude about his own feelings of hostility. It is extremely difficult to describe behaviorally how we want this person to behave after this type of learning experience. We may want him to shout at us when he gets angry. Or perhaps we want him to talk about his anger so that he can work through the hostility.

Figure 2

INDIVIDUAL LEARNING METHODS

GROUP I

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Lecture Books, Articles Slides, Filmstrips Movies, Television Phonograph Records, Tapes Programmed Instruction	Data input for the individual (Intellectual-concept)	Low involvement

GROUP II

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Case Study Incident Process In-Basket	Data-processing and decision-making by individual (Skill-intellectual)	Moderate involvement

GROUP III

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Role Playing Task Exercises Laboratory Methods • T-Group • Instrumented Group Psychodrama	Personal interaction • Skill-Interpersonal • Attitudes/Values	Moderate to high involvement

GROUP IV

METHODS	BASIC ACTIVITY	LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE
Management Games Dyadic Programming Diagnostic Data Task Group	Combinations of previous I, II, III	Moderate to high involvement

At the third level is the learning of skills. I have subdivided this grouping into: physical skills, such as typewriting; intellectual skills, such as working with new concepts and ideas required for problem-solving by new math; and interpersonal skills such as confronting another person with whom you are having conflict. This latter example probably involves some conceptual learning and attitudinal learning as well. I should point out that these categories are not mutually exclusive.

Means of Changing Behavior

Now let's go across the chart to the three major means by which individual behavior can be changed. First is new learning for the individual. Next is the unlearning of old responses or unfreezing. In many respects this is perhaps the most difficult kind of learning to bring about, because it involves re-examining and giving up that which has previously become part of an individual's behavior repertoire. The third way to modify behavior is to bring about learning which integrates two previously learned concepts or skills in some new way. This is perhaps the highest order and most creative kind of learning. In most programmed training, we expect all three kinds of learning to occur. In developing these programs, it will help us to be specific about the learning expected, so that we can more accurately choose the learning methods required to meet the objectives of the program.

Learning Methods: Data Input

Figure 2 shows about 20 learning methods combined into three family groupings determined by the common types of learning for which the methods seem most appropriate.

We are all probably familiar with the learning methods in Group I. They include lectures, books, articles, film strips, slides, movies, TV, phonograph records, tapes, and programmed instruction. I categorize these methods as a group because the basic activity involved is data input and the type of learning is largely the intellectual learning of new concepts.

All of the methods in this first group, with perhaps the exception of programmed instruction, put the learner in a fairly passive role which usually results in low involvement. For example, all of us have probably had the experience of falling asleep during a lecture or a movie or nodding off over a book. However, few have had the experience of falling asleep when engaged in conversation. This simple example illustrates what I mean by low involvement versus high involvement.

An advantage of this first group of learning methods is that they can be easily used to magnify. Through magnification, it is possible to reach more people quickly, to dramatize a point and make it come into sharp focus by cartooning or diagramming it. But magnification has some inherent dangers. If the original content is basically poor material, we may magnify it so that a large number of people are coerced into a poor learning experience. For example, my own experience tells me that most industrial training films are poorly made. Thousands of people may have to suffer from a poor learning input because the original material in the films was low-grade ore.

A second advantage coming from the use of the learning methods stressing magnification is a motivational one. A well-done learning input of this type really can catch hold of people. It can be an attention-grabber. If we can effectively dramatize something, we can make sure everyone will pay attention. However, this advantage also holds a danger. If we sit back through life waiting for the "big curtain" to go up on experience, we will spend most of our lives very passively. It seems to me this passive posture will work against the concept of a continuously learning individual. My own experience seems to point out that it's very difficult to be passive very long and learn very much. To learn, I must get involved. At some point I must get out of the monologue stage and into the dialogue process. This last danger certainly is one of the messages contained in the medium of data-input methods listed in Group I.

Data-Processing and Decision-Making Methods

Group II of the learning methods includes the case study, the incident process, and the in-basket. They are grouped together since they all focus on data analysis and decision-making.

The case study is a detailed description of a complex problem. All of the important facts are included. The learner is asked to consider all the information, make a decision regarding the problem, and support it from the available data. The Harvard Business School is usually given credit for developing this technique into a formal method of learning.

In writing case studies, we can vary the complexities as much as we wish. We can make it a simple yes-or-no type of decision. Or we can make it a decision that involves two, three, or a hundred variables, such as: "What are the problems? List them. Knowing what you know about the case, what would you do? And why?"

The case study involves the learner to a moderate degree, since it requires some study on the part of the individual or the group. It requires the learners to wrestle with the data, to weigh the data and arrange them to make better sense. As I have already mentioned, the basic activity characterizing the case study is the processing of information already available to the learner. It teaches him nothing about the skill of gathering the information because it is already accumulated for him. The basic learning accomplished can be categorized as intellectual skill learning, i.e., teaching the learner to do something with information that is given to him.

The incident process is a variation of the case study. In this method the incident itself is described very briefly with only a capsule of the information. The learner is then required to ask a resource person or persons for additional information. Through this method we can build practice in the skills required for gathering information. The resource person in this situation is the person who has the additional facts. The learner has to work for them. They won't be given to him unless he asks for them. Therefore the learner is developing skills in both decision-making and information-gathering.

The third technique in this group is the in-basket. Basically an in-basket is a simulation of what a person often finds in his own in-basket when he walks into his office after vacation. He has a pile of letters, reports, notes, or telephone calls. The in-basket method is structured on some unit of time. "You have just come back from vacation, and you have one hour before you have to catch a plane to your main office in Pittsburgh. Your job is to work through your in-basket. Jot down either on the letters or on a separate piece of paper what you are going to do." The learner, having 60 real minutes, starts to go through all the various pieces in the in-basket. He has to develop some sort of overall framework to which he can relate each of the individual pieces. Often he will project into the in-basket his own frame of reference. If his normal behavior is to give a letter from the vice president first priority, he will probably list the vice president's letter as the most critical decision he has to make, regardless of its contents. Usually we ask participants in our in-basket groups to list the decisions in order of importance after they have worked through the total in-basket.

One problem with using in-baskets is how to help each participant at the end of the exercise get some specific individual learning and meaning from it. We can discuss how he assigned priorities to the decisions required by the in-basket. This is meaningful to many people. We may also talk about how he tackles a complex problem. This includes looking at the process of how he went through the material and the order in which he worked on it. Sometimes we staple the in-basket materials together, and it is surprising how many individuals work through it in the same order in which it is given. We ask: "Why did you accept the given physical boundaries as a limitation, when you could have ripped the in-basket apart and spread the papers out on the floor so that you could get an overview?" Some participants get very angry at this question. Their attitude is: "If you didn't want us to work with the material in that order, why did you staple it?" I believe it helps them to take a look at their anger and their unthinking acceptance of artificial limitations.

Learning Methods Based on Interaction

Group III methods are primarily concerned with personal interaction. The areas of behavior that are being focused on here are interpersonal skills, attitudes, and values.

Let me quickly describe role-playing for you.. Role-playing is designed to capture certain types of personal interactions. The interaction being focused on may be between boss and subordinate, interviewer and applicant, husband and wife, or some other pair or small group of people. A role-playing exercise normally begins with several separate pieces of printed material. A writeup is developed for each person involved in the incident under study. Another handout will describe in some detail the incident which brings all of the characters in the exercise together. Each participant is asked to assume the identity of one of the individuals in the incident, and it is then enacted.

The assignment of roles may cause difficulty if they turn out to be much different from the ones the participants are accustomed to playing. For example, if a participant is a boss and the role requires him to interact with a subordinate, it may be easier for him to identify with the boss role. If the role is that of a father interacting with a child, it may be easier for the participant to get into the father role. However, significant learning can occur from having a participant assume a role which is opposite to his normal situation.

Typically in a role-playing exercise participants receive feedback either from a preselected observer or from the remainder of the group. The participants themselves also often contribute to the feedback session. The feedback normally includes information about such questions as: What took place? What was the general nature of the interaction? Was the decision reached satisfactory to each individual? How did each participant feel about the other participants during the exercise? How might the interaction have been more effective?

In a task exercise, a joint assignment is given to a group of people. An example: "In the next hour, plan how to construct this model airplane from the pieces which have been distributed among you. You are competing against other groups. The objective is to duplicate the model in front of you in the shortest period of time without making any mistakes. You have the next hour to plan this task. You will have no more than 15 minutes to work on the actual building of this model from the pieces you have among you. You may start actual construction before the end of 60 minutes if you so choose. No pieces may be pre-assembled before you begin actual timed construction."

Most of the people in our American Airlines training courses with whom we use task exercises initially think: "This is going to be simple." However, I am repeatedly amazed at how involved grown-ups can get in something seemingly as simple as this.

Normally, several issues arise during a team's work on a task exercise. How do team members communicate with each other about the construction pieces which are a basic part of their task? Do they assemble all of the resources necessary and available for accomplishment of the task? How do they handle the issue of leadership for the team? How well do they utilize all of their resources? How do they test their assumptions about the ground rules for the task and about their ideas for accomplishing it?

The primary focus in a task exercise is not on how fast a team can build a model given to them to duplicate. Rather, the focus is on the process which they as individuals and as a group go through to accomplish an objective. What kind of assumptions do they make? The task exercise serves as a means for generating task-oriented behavior with the objective of looking at what takes place in the exercise.

The next learning approach in Group III is the laboratory method. In most laboratory method applications, a group of 10 to 20 individuals meet without any formal written agenda. A trainer is also a part of the group. His basic instruction to the group may sound something like this: "We are primarily going to be interested in what is happening here and now, right here in this room at this moment. We are not especially interested in people outside of this group or your boss back on the job. What happens between us here in this room is what I want us to give our attention to. Another thing we are going to do is to collect data about ourselves from the other people here. That means that we are going to be giving rather candid reactions as to how we see each other. This carries with it the responsibility for each of us to accept his share of ownership of what the group does. We have complete freedom to decide what we wish to do in the group."

This initial lack of structure, with an unaccustomed amount of freedom, is a unique experience for most people. My own years of experience in academic and work settings have conditioned me to believe that time is a precious resource and I ought to utilize it. Therefore, I have a strong urge to get something going. Usually there will be several people in a group who will want to step in and get things started. Probably there will be other people who resist them and feel irritated because they try to take over and determine what the group is going to do.

Through his prior training and experience, the T-Group trainer is able to see most of the interpersonal process occurring in this kind of unstructured group situation. Sometimes the group will get hung up and be unable to progress because there is a problem with one person. Sometimes there will be a considerable build-up of feelings that can't quite bubble up to the surface to be discussed openly and candidly. In situations such as these, the trainer may sometimes intervene. He may say, "Look, I have a feeling that there are some irritations from the stunt that Frank pulled yesterday. Maybe we need to talk about it before we can move on." Again I emphasize that the focus is on the here and now, the process of interaction, and on what takes place between individuals in the ongoing experience of the laboratory group.

The instrumented laboratory is another variation of the laboratory method. Here, rather than having an expert sit with the group to help with its problems, data about here-and-now interactions between group members are collected through the use of instruments or questionnaires. I may, for example, be feeling angry toward Carol Weiss, but I can't tell her because I have difficulty telling women I am angry with them. In an instrumented laboratory, I will have an opportunity at various times during the learning experience to fill out a questionnaire about my feelings and about my perception of other people in the group. The data are collected. The group as a whole takes a look at them out in the open and decides what to do. The group may choose to ignore the data or to identify (or try to identify) what problems seem to be indicated. The instrumented laboratory approach removes the trainer from the group, thereby resolving the issue of the trainer being perceived by group members as the authority.

Some of you have probably heard of Blake's management grid theory and program. Blake uses the instrumented laboratory approach in his management grid training seminars.

In psychodrama, the last method in Group III, an individual is asked to assume the role of a person with whom he is having some kind of difficulty. For example, if Marshall Fels and I work together and he is telling me about a problem he is having with one of the men in the shop, I might try to take his role and he might take the role of the other man. Using this approach, we would try to work through the situation to see what Marshall's reactions might be when he is in the other person's shoes. Or I might assume the role of the man with whom he is having the problem and ask him to go through it again the way it actually happened or the way he imagines it is going to happen when they have the encounter. In some respects, psychodrama is similar to role-playing except that it is somewhat more reality-based and therefore more involving.

Learning Methods in Combination

Each of the learning methods in Group IV basically combines the major features and functions of several methods previously described: data input, data-processing and decision-making, and personal interaction.

The management game is a method being used more and more widely today in American business. At American Airlines, we call our management game Desertopolis. As in any business game, our Desertopolis game involves giving a problem to a team of men with a structured role for each of them which contains specific information and tasks to be accomplished. The initial task of Desertopolis is to organize and launch an airplane operation where none has existed before. There are seven roles to be played: city manager, sales manager, cargo manager, maintenance manager, market research and advertising manager, controller and schedule manager. This roughly duplicates our American Airlines form of local organization. Each team's task is to make seven kinds of decisions which represent a distillation of the reality they normally work in. On their real jobs, these same men would have to make hundreds of decisions. However, we are taking out of reality and building into this game key decisions to be made by a group. For example, each team must decide how much advertising it is going to buy, how many mechanics it is going to hire, how many spare parts it will have to stock for its aircraft, how many salesmen it will hire, where it will place them in the market, what market or markets it will specialize in, etc.

Desertopolis is played on a quarter basis. Every three months — which can vary in real time from 15 minutes to 30 minutes — each team is required to fill out a set of decision forms. These forms are reviewed and scored by the trainers. The results from each team's decisions are returned to the teams. From them they learn how many sales they made and how many pounds of cargo they sold. These sales can then be converted into dollars which are, in turn, used to buy more advertising, to hire more salesmen, to stock more spare parts, etc. The involvement in this type of exercise is extremely high.

What is learned from it? Primarily, participants learn two things. For many of our managers, the game provides a means for them to integrate for the first time the multiple basic functions of an airline. When a spare part is not available or a mechanic is not on hand to fix an aircraft, the operation stops. This is the way it happens in real life. Usually the maintenance man will understand it, but he really begins to feel what his function does to other functions as they interrelate during the game across the organizational structure. In a game such as this, where everything is condensed in terms of simplicity and time, it is easier to see how the various functions interrelate with each other and how a problem in one area can cause problems in all others.

The second thing a participant learns is the way in which his own analytic, decision-making, and interpersonal skills affect his teammates in the results the team achieves. Periodically we stop the action and put the game aside for awhile to discuss why each team is getting certain results. Sometimes it turns out that one individual is having a real problem in being listened to by another man. During the team feedback discussion, he may say: "If you'd listened to me, we wouldn't have got into that fix. But you never listen. You just stand up and talk all the time!" This is valuable feedback to get. It is highly probable that each participant's behavior in his team is similar to his behavior on the job.

The dyadic programming approach to learning is an interesting experimental attempt to program meaningful interpersonal interaction. One example is the management improvement program developed by the Human Development Institute in Atlanta, Georgia. The program requires two people to sit down and read the programmed content aloud to each other. Much of the program contains information about how people often deal with each other. There are also questions about this information, and the two people are asked to fill in blanks just as in a traditional form of programmed instruction. However, at other points in the dyadic program, they are asked to describe what they are feeling at that moment. Or they may be asked to engage in a role-playing episode with the learning partner and then describe how they felt about the interaction. These discussions are then related back to the main content of the program.

Human Development Institute has developed another dyadic program on improving marital relationships. A husband and wife sit down and work through the program, talking about key concepts of a marriage relationship and problems that frequently arise between husband and wife. They stop from time to time to discuss their feelings in the here and now. Role-playing situations are enacted during the program, problems with the kids and how they are handled. The participants see each other in certain family situations. Thus they work jointly toward a more open family relationship without the assistance of a trained third party.

The diagnostic data task exercise is a learning method aimed at bringing about vital behavior change on the job. It enables people to take a look at what's happening right now as they work together. As an example, Union Carbide has used a one-page questionnaire to generate data in group meetings about the quality of interactions occurring at that moment in time. Such areas as trust, open communication, and quality of member participation in the meeting are rated by each individual on a nine-point scale. The data are then displayed for everyone to see. Because the data came directly from the group that they are working in, it is difficult if not impossible for the individuals to disown them by saying, "Oh, that's someone else's problem." If there is an area where the average rating of a group is a three, then the group knows that on that point it has some real problems to resolve. Perhaps there is a distorting of communication in the group. They may not be sharing information fully because they really don't trust everyone. Obviously, unless the group faces up to such problems, its effectiveness will be seriously impaired. By using diagnostic data devices, individuals and work teams can find out what interpersonal problems are influencing the effectiveness of the job.

Summary

In summary, there are numerous methods which we can use to help other people learn about almost anything. Each method is particularly appropriate for certain kinds of learning. Our major job in constructing programs that will help others to learn is to select the right combination of methods for the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be learned. This task is analogous to playing a piano. There are 88 keys which can be played in an almost infinite variety of combinations. But unless we know in advance what the overall composition should sound like, our playing will be full of discords and void of any real meaning.

DISCUSSION

Marshall Fels

Mr. Randall covered a great range of training methodology. Each training method he mentioned has been "successfully" employed in both the private and public sectors. Thus I first make the point that the methodology used at American Airlines can be employed at Jones State Prison.

But be sure you put training methodology into perspective. Be sure that you understand that the methods — T-Group training, lecture, in-basket, on-the-job training — are *tools* much like the pipe wrench the plumber uses; more sophisticated, to be sure, but still a tool for getting the job done.

And this brings me to another point. Don't pick the method until you decide what is the job to be done. Each training tool is usually best for a particular job. For instance, if my institution was having a problem of contraband in cells, I might well decide to do some refresher training. Though you might disagree, the method which might work best would be to demonstrate cell shakedown, have the trainee practice under observation, give him some feedback, and then have some additional practice.

Mr. Fels is organization and manpower utilization specialist in the Department of Mental Hygiene, State of California.

On the other hand if my sergeants and lieutenants were not communicating, or at least seemed not to be, then the training tool might best be of the laboratory training type, understanding that this tool has not necessarily been proven infallible. Whatever the case, the tool is chosen after the *need* is established and the *objectives* for the training set.

Now, note that the word "objective" has crept back in after its introduction by Mr. Kludt this morning. When you start out to train, to meet a specific need or group of needs, you must set objectives so that, when the training is ended (if training ever ends), management knows whether its investment has paid off and the trainer knows whether his choice of a particular training tool was correct. I feel that Mr. Randall's management probably is much more demanding in this area than are most managements of correctional institutions or public administrators in general.

And so I am led to my last major point. Don't let Mr. Randall's competence as a training manager and his ability to explain training methods lead you astray. He believes, I'm sure, as I do, that training must more and more become an integral part of the organization. At present, training is mostly an appendage to the organization. The training lieutenant all too often runs a sort of school in a group of rooms set aside in the administrative wing of the institution, or the parole training office does the same in another setting. But what relationship does that training have to an evolving organization form, to the influence of a supervisor on his subordinate, to problem-solving, to revision of rules and regulations, and so on?

How do an organization and its people grow and mature? Is growth better stimulated by a perceptive person looking at the "process" of the executive staff meeting; by a course in supervision for all correctional lieutenants or parole supervisors; by the "growth milieu" a sergeant creates for his officers; or by a training course to teach the new regulations?

Just one more comment. Mr. Randall covered many training tools, but not all. There are many innovative adaptations being used in training, and many more tools are soon to be discovered. Don't appoint a tired old correctional worker to handle training to get him out of the "more important" work. Appoint an interested, vigorous correctional worker or a professional trainer.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Motivation for training appears to be a serious problem. How can we motivate people so that the training effort is not nullified? One of the ways is through the use of training techniques that involve them in the training. Present pessimism about training is based on the non-involved methods such as lectures and films.

Involving the trainees results in a focusing of the training on real problems that have application to the job. Any irrelevance of the training material to the job becomes most apparent in a role-playing situation. It is in the area of relevance that one of the weaknesses of training lies.

Training of correctional officers in group counseling is a familiar fad these days. Too often, the organizational change that must precede this training does not take place. Although it can be rationalized that the training will sensitize the trainees, the lack of structure within which this new training can be used negates the training effort.

Too often trainees are aware that change will not take place to accommodate the new training. This is especially true when the trainees, having evaluated their superiors, realize that new behaviors will not be accepted and new methods of doing the job will not be tolerated. It is difficult for the trainer to be effective in the face of opposition to new ideas revealed by evaluation of a superior's response.

To what extent must training reach the superior? How high up the administrative hierarchy must training begin in order to prepare the groundwork for effective training in the lower ranks? Obviously, we cannot expect to take busy administrators away from their work in order to train them. Yet it is necessary to involve them in training somehow. We make a mistake, however, in thinking that the top administrator should actually be put through a training program. By the time a person becomes a top administrator, it is too late to give him training. The only realistic concern here should be to get a training commitment from him. We want him to support the training program and back it when the going gets rough.

Training should reach up into the middle-management level. These are the people who are involved in the daily operation and who can exert the most influence. An example was given of a training program in letter-writing given by the federal General Services Administration for people whose main function was drafting letters. A new style of drafting letters was taught to trainees. When they returned to their jobs, the persons who were to sign the letters refused to sign them. This points up the problem mentioned earlier, the need to change the structure of the work if the training is to be effective. In this case, a change in procedure should have taken place along with the training. It may not have been necessary to put the letter-signers through a letter-drafting training program, since this would not be relevant to their work. However, some effort should have been made to acquaint them with the rationale behind the training. Undoubtedly some few would have resisted the new method in any case, but the number would have been reduced by such an approach.

There is a need for a coordinated training effort so that it cuts through an organization. For example, training of persons on a lower level can create problems if their superiors are not aware of the purpose and the results of the training. Often the trainee learns new behavior and new terminology and through their use creates anxiety in his superior. The training has created a gap in this instance. The superior does not understand his subordinate, nor is he involved in the restructuring of the job situation. It is important therefore not only to be aware of the immediate training goals but also to coordinate the training so the ramifications for all other organizational levels are understood. In short, don't concentrate on training the correctional officer and ignore the lieutenant or the associate warden.

We are sometimes overwhelmed by the belief that there is a lack of motivation among personnel. This assumption is not necessarily valid. We tend to view the average person as being unmotivated because he has civil service protection or because he belongs to a union. Beginning with this assumption, we attempt to motivate through training. In this instance, training becomes a substitute for confrontation. If it is felt that work performance is below the acceptable level or if there is absenteeism, the underlying problems must be addressed. To provide a training program to teach job skills that the person already has or to discuss the honest use of sick leave only reinforces the problem. It tells the employee that he is viewed as inferior. It does not go beyond the performance to the reasons behind the performance. It uses training as a substitute for supervisory skills.

Training in itself is not a motivator. We cannot use it to raise morale any more than we can use pay raises for this purpose. Studies have shown that a pay raise acts as a job satisfier for only a short period of time. In fact, after a pay raise a person will feel that he is worth as much as he is being paid. The significant motivators include: increased responsibility on the job; and recognition and reward for performance. Training can prepare people to assume greater responsibility; recognition and reward are administrative matters. Moreover, increased responsibility must result from a restructuring of the context of the job. We cannot train people to assume responsibility and then not give them anything responsible to do. Training is not a substitute for good supervision or good management.

COLORADO TRAINING PROGRAMS

Howard Higman

I am going to describe to you our experiences in Colorado in training employment counselors and VISTA volunteers. By way of background, I have to say that I am a professional sociologist but an amateur trainer. We got into training accidentally, involuntarily, and the training we have got involved with has been very successful. We have evidence for success, and now as intellectuals we are embarrassed to try to figure out what makes it successful. One of the reasons we don't know what makes it successful is that we have been unwilling to run an unsuccessful program as a control group.

Basic Elements in the Programs

Our first program started accidentally in 1964 when the Labor Department decided to change its method of training employment counselors. The Employment Service is one of the most established old-line bureaucracies in the United States. It has different names in different states, but it's all under the Bureau of Employment Service in the Labor Department. That bureau wanted to go into a new field. Up to now they had had what they called high school counselors, who called in students and gave them batteries of tests. They would say to one of them, "Terry Thompson, you qualify for an opening we have over at Lacey Motors, putting on fenders. Go over and see Mr. Thorndike." When Terry comes back with a job, the high school counselor makes a mark on the paper which is called a placement. You add all these marks up, and they are called a budget. So the more marks the better. Of course, Terry Thompson would probably have got this job anyway.

The new idea was to see if some of these high school counselors could be retreaded into counselors for the Youth Opportunity Centers, those early outposts in the war on poverty. So Washington drew up "guidelines" for training them. The guidelines called for taking a large number of counselors for three weeks on a university campus — green grass, handsome buildings, the works — and running them through courses on community relations, community organization, race relations, counseling, and so on. Then these counselors would go back with certificates to the effect that they had been through a training program, and this would distinguish them from other counselors.

The guidelines were shown to us in Denver, and we were asked to propose a training program along these lines. We were really not willing to do this. So we drafted an alternative proposal and took it back to Denver. It was different from what the guidelines suggested, in several ways. Probably the most important were these:

1. The training program would not take place on a campus but in an old warehouse down on skid row in the worst section of the city of Denver.

2. We would go out and employ high school drop-outs, ADC mothers, and unemployed men, people you find in bars where the unemployed congregate. We would hire these people, and they would be part of our faculty. We would call them basic instructors. We would pay them $10 a day to give us lectures and teach us what it is like to be poor and out of a job.

The Denver regional representative of the federal bureau objected to Difference No. 1 — having the program in a slum district. Theatrical, he

---

Mr. Higman is professor of sociology at the University of Colorado.

called it. I told him with some heat that there were two good reasons for having it there. First, from the theory of Lewin, we know that the structure of the field has an enormous effect on the rate of learning. To live in an area and see poor people, people waiting in line for 3 hours' work, people lying drunk on the sidewalk, and so on, would affect the way in which the training would be received.

More important than that, we would never be able to bring our basic instructors into a federal building — through the bronze doors, into an elevator, and along marble halls to an auditorium — without their freezing on us and being completely unable to talk. Any time a person like a basic instructor has been led through government buildings it's been the police who did the leading, and it has always been bad news. If we want to hear their story from these people, we have to go where they are, not drag them where we are.

Well, the proposal went to Washington. A high official in the Labor Department is reported to have said: "We have had 185 program proposals. This is the only one with an untested idea, so we don't have any evidence that it won't work. Therefore, let's fund it."

So that was the beginning. We had about 40 high school counselors from five states — New Mexico, Colorado, Utah, Wyoming, and Montana. The program lasted three weeks.

Structure of the Program

I will tell you a little about how the training was structured.[1] I should say first of all that the trainees lived in an old hotel near the Union Station in Denver, where Horace Tabor lived with Baby Doe in the rousing days of the silver kings in Colorado. The old building, now in the slum area, is named the Oxford Hotel. So we called our program the Oxford Training University.

We have a theory on the difference between training and education. An education is what we work at on a college campus. It is designed to produce a creative, independent mind. Philosophy dreams up things that are and things that aren't. It is deductive, impersonal, and permissive, and it moves in various ways its wonders to achieve. This is the whole world of education on the campus.

Now training, on the other hand, we think of as the quickest possible installation into a human being of a limited amount of orientation or skill (orientation is more important than skill) for a specific goal which we have before we start and which he will have when we are through.

The first principle of our program was that trainees should be exhausted at all times and thus should have no time for their minds to wander. So a formal schedule was set up from 8:00 a.m. till noon. Lunch was a work session, a work lunch called feedback. The afternoon session was from 2:00 to 5:00 with dinner about 5:30 or 6:00 till 7:30. Then there was another session till 9:00. This went on seven days a week except that Sundays were free until noon. This left no time for anybody to do anything but get exhausted.

But even with this schedule, we discovered that the students augmented it further. When we released them at about 10:30 p.m., they would assemble in small groups and go on talking about their exhaustion until about 2:00 or 3:00 a.m. It seems that you can get so tired that you can't go to sleep, and that's what they did.

---

[1] For detailed description and evaluation of the program, see Howard Higman, Robert Hunter, and William T. Adams, *The Colorado Story, An Evaluation Report on the Employment Security Institute*, University of Colorado, Institute of Behavioral Science, Bureau of Sociological Research (Boulder, Colo.: The Institute, 1964).

Also we had the idea of ambiguity. Ambiguity meant that they never could know what was going to happen next. It was exceedingly unclear to them what the program was about, and there was great anxiety every day. There would be a lecture called "Mirrors in Back Rooms," business administration courses called "Bureaucratic Static," and so forth. Then we would suddenly make complete shifts in the program. The only thing they knew was what time they should show up and how they should be dressed. But not what was going to happen. So they were right on the edge of their seats throughout the whole thing with sheer anxiety.

Field Placements

The first thing we did was to see that everyone had a field placement as soon as he got there. The field placement was one of the most effective parts of the program. For one placement, trainees rode with a police officer in a squad car from seven in the evening until three in the morning. The cars were in District One, which includes skid row, answering call after call — parties in apartment houses, husband-wife disputes, brawls in bars. As students observed, they became very ambiguous about who was guilty and who wasn't. They saw officers being rather mean to the Spanish-American youths and youths being very menacing to the officers. They saw a mutual exchange of mistrust and hostility. I wouldn't say that they identified with the officers, but they didn't identify with the boys either. They saw the problems in terms of the system, with a relationship between the boy and the officer in the system. It was all fairly ambiguous, and they had a shocking experience on these trips.

One day they were told to come dressed in shabby, but not dirty clothes — a clean old sweatshirt, for example. Then they were given half an hour to concoct a mythical work history. They were to be out of work and, for a valid reason, not be able to furnish a reference. They were then to think up a strategy for getting a job. They wrote all this out. We collected the papers and sent them on their way to get a job. They were told that they could change their strategy, if necessary, when they got out in the field. And they could make one telephone call to us. Let me tell you about the experiences of a couple of men.

Fleming looked in the paper and found an ad for a truck driver. When he applied for the job, the clerk asked what type of work he had been doing. "I was just released from the state pen," said Fleming. "You mean you're on parole?" "No, I served my time, and it's all over now." "Have you driven a truck before?" "Yes, I've driven a laundry truck." "Well, have you driven a bakery truck?" "No, I haven't driven a bakery truck." "Well, that's what we're looking for."

Watson went to a place run by his own agency, the Employment Service. It is what we called the slave market, a store front on a slum corner where men line up early for unskilled work — 3-hour jobs, 6-hour jobs. Watson got in line. The Employment Service man asked him what his last job was. "I haven't been working. I've been in the state mental hospital." "Are you nuts or something?" "No, I'm all right now." "Just a minute. Would you step aside, please?" The next applicant was called up. Watson said he began to feel like a telephone pole because people were going around him. He would go forward in line as far as the desk, and each time he would be asked to step aside. Finally — "That's all for today, boys." "What about me?" Watson asked. "Oh, I forgot you. Come back tomorrow."

The most dramatic experience was that of an older woman. When she entered the program, she had decided that she didn't need to take the battery of tests as the others did, but she was soon convinced that she would have to if she wanted to stay. On this assignment she couldn't really dress like a poor person out of a job. She was pretty clever in designing a non-work history. She had never worked because she had been married and had enough money. Her husband had died, and she had lost some money on the market. Her children were gone, and she needed to work now. She had really done a lot of things, but all on a volunteer unpaid basis. She had been a Gray Lady, nurse's aid, and all kinds of things like that. She applied for a job for which she was totally qualified: supervising a group of girls in a department store. When she arrived, she didn't have a reference, and the little whipper-snapper behind the counter said," Well, I am sorry, but we are not interviewing anyone without a reference." She begged for an employment form anyway. She said that she could make the case with all those volunteer jobs. But she didn't get her form.

She came back shaken up because she discovered that what is awfully hard for any of us middle-class persons to discover: that is, we are not individuals but groups of individuals. When she was shorn of all the people she could refer to, she was nobody. Up to that moment, she had thought of herself as someone of importance, and this was a profound learning experience for her.

Another field assignment was for the students to get up at four in the morning and go down to the slave market to watch people get jobs and not get jobs. They observed how those who did get jobs were often hustled into trucks like cattle and cursed if they didn't move fast enough.

For another field experience, we took away the students' wallets and purses. Then we doled out to each of them three quarters — two for carfare and one for lunch. Each one was assigned to a basic instructor, who was told to take the student along and just re-do what the instructor had done the day before. Nothing exhausted the students so much. They spent the whole day just killing time. It's a fantastically hard job to make a day go by when you don't have the knowledge, or the interest, or the will to go to the art museum or visit the state capitol or watch the Denver Post get printed. There are all kinds of things you can do for free, and some are exciting. But the basic instructors don't know about these things. Theirs is a tiny little world in which they try to kill the day with drinking beer, listening to records, walking, ganging up, driving round and round.

VISTA Training Program

After we had completed the counselor training program, we were asked to train VISTA volunteers who would work with poor people in farms and villages.[2] As with the employment counselor program, the VISTA volunteers were trained among the poor. We set up the program in the San Luis Valley in the southwestern part of the state, where potatoes, truck crops, and hay are grown and harvested by migrant labor and by people from the local Spanish-American villages which antedate most other settlements in Colorado. The program was headquartered in a small hotel in Monte Vista, the seat of a county which is prosperous farming country but has pockets of Spanish-American poverty. Nearby are several counties which are almost totally poverty-stricken.

---

[2] See Howard Higman, Robert Hunter, and William T. Adams, *The Monte Vista Story, An Evaluation Report on a Training Program for Volunteers in Service to America*, University of Colorado, Institute of Behavioral Science (Boulder, Colo.: The Institute, 1965).

One of their first field experiences was to take a sleeping bag and move into the home of a poverty-stricken Spanish-American family for three days and nights. We paid the hosts $5 a day for the room and board. The volunteers were given a secret task to perform — to make a health survey of the family. They were to weigh everyone in the family without their knowing it. This they did by balancing with them on a teeter-totter. They were to take everyone's pulse rate. They were to make a caloric inventory of the food intake. According to the Public Health Service, the result was probably the most accurate food survey ever done there. Students were trained to observe what was being served probably because they were there, as opposed to what was the normal diet. A sample clue was a small child's question about a glass of milk: *"Mamá, qué es esto?"* (Mommy, what's that?).

The volunteers also spent three days with a social worker from the welfare department. They saw the worker punish the client and the client punish the worker in turn.

This leads me to an experience called Operation Elbow Room. The volunteers built a house, but first they had to go to the mountains and chop down trees and skin them. They dug holes and mixed cement. They built the house and plastered it.

We did this for several reasons. One was to show how a house could be built with very little money using native materials. And we wanted to involve the Spanish-American community with us. We let the word get round that we were going to build a house for exercise and build it in the Spanish barrio (ghetto), a section of the town without sewers or running water, without hard-surfaced streets or fire protection. The people there felt it was a shame that the house shouldn't be used. We said we couldn't do that because there would be jealousy. So they had a town meeting and picked someone for whom the house should be built. This was a 40-year-old man who had heart trouble and so couldn't have worked if any work were available.

We did, as a matter of fact, use the house-building as a physical education program. We also used it to demonstrate the character of the volunteers to the local townspeople, who had anticipated beatniks at best and Communists at worst. The idea that the volunteers would actually build something was pretty impressive to the local Methodists and Presbyterians.

This brings me back to the welfare agency. The state welfare director heard about Operation Elbow Room and came down to see it. When we took him over to the spot, there were about a hundred people standing around watching the house go up. Someone said something, and there was a sound like a flock of birds getting under way. The director looked up and asked where all the people had gone. "Oh, they overheard," someone replied. "Overheard what?" "That you were the boss of the welfare department." When the director went back to Denver, he called his staff together and described what went on in terms of "that's what they think of you."

The trainees spent three days in recreation, going out to create basketball courts and baseball diamonds. They taught probability theory with dice. They worked with children of all ages, from four to eighteen. They didn't get the Spanish kids to play baseball honestly. But they did get them to play, which is something of an accomplishment because the rural Spanish-American culture just does not have organized sports and so there's little for the kids to do which doesn't get them into trouble. They didn't play honestly, as I said. The big boys wouldn't let the younger ones come to bat, or they rigged it so they always won. The course in sportsmanship comes next year.

The trainees attended trials in a court room or in the kitchen of a county judge, where judicial procedure had apparently never been heard of. They saw a man committed to a mental hospital without being allowed to testify in his own behalf, the judge and his attorney agreeing that he was better off not to testify although he asked to do so.

They saw three Spanish boys fighting with Anglo boys on a street corner. When a policeman broke it up, he sent the Anglo boys home with their fathers, but he took the Spanish boys in the paddy wagon to jail. When the trainees asked why the Spanish boys' father hadn't been called, the policeman said, "Oh, he's probably drunk. And besides, they don't have telephones." This kind of Spanish kid can easily go from jail to the state reform school. They are doing so at a fantastic rate, even though they may be only 10 years old.

Process of Communication

Each trainee had to keep a daily log of his experiences. They were instructed to listen all the time for words, to listen and record sentences every day. When they heard references to God, to authority, to power, to play, to fun, to the future, etc., these were to be recorded in terms of times and places and quantities. The trainees both in Denver and in Monte Vista acquired a whole new vocabulary that reflected the culture of the urban and the rural poor.

In Denver we finally told the trainees to dress in their best one night. We gave each a little address book without anything in it and sent them off to posh places like the Brown Palace Hotel and the Denver Hilton, with instructions to sit in bars and not drink. They would give the excuse that they were waiting for someone. They would be looking in their address books from time to time. Eventually everybody felt sorry for the poor stood-up guy or gal and got very friendly. Now what the trainees were doing with those address books was to jot down words and sentences, exactly as they had been doing with the basic instructors and other poor people. The shock came when they compared the two vocabularies.

In our daily sessions the basic instructors would sit by the tape recorder in front of the trainees and start talking. Bit by bit, the trainees would move in closer and closer to listen. They weren't lost; they weren't a bit lost, since they had learned the vocabulary. The thing about the story is that invariably just as the basic instructor got to the point where you thought, "This is as much as a human being can take," you got another chapter and it was worse. This went on and on.

In this situation, we observed trainees move all the way from an identification with their own bureaucracy, their own middle class, to identification with the client. That's too much. At the end of this sort of thing, they were ready to resign, to abolish the Labor Department, or whatever it was that had to be abolished. We had the task then of moving them back halfway. So we had a week of un-brainwashing, where they came back out of this coma into a halfway position.

I can hardly overstate what those basic instructors accomplished in changing the trainees. Several trainees, I knew, had been able to resist successfully all the propaganda from Washington about their obligations under the Civil Rights Act. I have seen them sit and resist every single speaker for hours on end for two solid days. Then on the third morning, they listened to the experiences of two Negroes and a couple of Spanish boys. By noon they were absolutely and totally affected by the experience. In the afternoon, when they had a choice of different questions for discussion in the small groups, seven of the eight independently chose as the main problem the question of how to rid their own department offices of de facto discrimination. Yet for two solid days they had been united in their resistance to this concept. In this training we were consciously seeking to change the labor counselors and have them go back and change the organization and their supervisors.

Trainers and Trainees

The trainee needs to feel that the training staff know what they are doing, that they are more than custodians. I get the feeling that some trainers are not seen; they start programs and, the minute the speaker begins, they duck out to make a very important telephone call. The content of the course is not important enough for the staff to hear it.

Our training staff, however, are forced to sit and take notes, even though they are hearing the lecture for the eighth time in a row, because they are still examples to the trainees. If the lecture isn't important enough for the training staff, then it isn't important enough for the trainees. I've seen situations where the training staff are wandering around during the training, changing things or whispering in the doorway. So you have two things going: the presentation and a sort of visible administration. This is a very poor sort of situation.

I think the idea of continuous pressure is an important part of effective training. It is not a bit important that the trainee resents it. He should be uncomfortable. In fact, he should learn to feel that it is unpleasant. And then I feel he needs to be celebrated, enormously, at the very end. At the end of our training programs we celebrate in terms of food, beverages, certificates and speeches, and so the trainee has the sense of being blessed.

Another point is that the training program has to train the training staff at the same time it is training the trainees. For that reason, we have a staff meeting every day at five o'clock . . . seven days a week. The whole previous 24 hours is reviewed in detail.

Coping with the Establishment

The end result of the training program should be seen as learning a way of coping with the establishment. In other words, we invite to lecture to us the establishment that we are involved with. Somehow you can't come in and lecture in a training program and maintain your hatred, because you are such an egoist that, if anyone would clap for you, you have got something going. In the VISTA program we bring in the most militant employers of farm migrants for an evening, to tell us how horrible migrants are. The VISTA volunteers are going out to try to undermine these employer farmers' resistance to change. They sit and drink beer with them until two in the morning, fighting and discussing; eventually a little bond of friendship is built up. The hostile newspaper editor is invited to come in and advise them on how to cop the newspaper editor — not him, of course, but the editor in the town you are going to go to — to help you with your program. Thus training involves the community, the establishment, the superiors, as well as the trainee.

Furthermore, we find that it is better in training to have a newspaper man talking about newspapers than a professor of journalism — at least in the question-and-answer period — because he is real. It's better to have a juvenile judge come in and talk about the role of the judge and the role of the delinquent with the judge, than to have the professor of criminology. The idea of what we call the clinical and empirical training approach is to use real persons.

DISCUSSION

Kenneth Polk

Throughout today we have been listening to comments on in-service training of various kinds. One thing which is obvious is that the name of the game of in-service training has changed. Clearly, what is being discussed is much more sophisticated and is accomplishing a lot more than used to be included in correctional in-service training.

The second point emerging from our discussion is methods — the distinction that is being made between training and education. The three prior speakers have specifically rejected the university model of education. This should tell us professors that there is something wrong when so much of training and so much of the ultimate learning business has been turned over to other kinds of people using elaborate, efficient, and sophisticated techniques. This is of tremendous significance.

Mr. Higman's training model develops the notion that training first should somehow take place in the field; that it should take place somehow where the action is. Those of us who have had contact with the Colorado program and the kinds of people who have been produced recognize the significance of this program. Training people in a setting similar to the actual work situation gives people preparation and insight which appear to go far beyond those produced by traditional training models.

There is much more to the Colorado programs than this "setting" assumption. It is these other assumptions that appear to me to be more problematic. For example, the staff is cast in extremely authoritarian roles. While such an authoritarian organization may yield a number of positive benefits, it is an open question as to whether such training best prepares people for the outside world which lacks such tight structuring.

In addition, the heavy scheduling of trainees' time literally envelops the trainer in the training experience. Again, this strikes me as being a separate component of the training theory contained in Mr. Higman's comments. Such a process on its surface appears pedagogically sound, but it is not without its price. One result is stress among trainees. Before wholesale application of this method occurs, some thought should be given as to whether the program is ready to take on the consequence of a high level of trainee stress and anxiety.

There is an additional notion expressed here as to who does the training job best. It is appropriate to argue that judges can do some training better than professors of criminology and that a police captain, let's say, can do a better job of promoting some material than a specialist in police administration. What needs to be said is that such statements refer to a certain kind of knowl-

---

Mr. Polk is associate professor of sociology, University of Oregon.

edge. Specifically, this is a low order of knowledge, in the sense of level of abstraction. Such a program may not prepare the trainees to deal with phenomena at an abstract level. At least some discussion of these concepts at a theoretical level would be essential in most kinds of correctional training programs.

A final problem about this and the other training programs we have reviewed is that they are, in essence, ideologically empty. That is to say, these training methods, including the one just discussed, do not have an explicit commitment to a set of goals. What the trainer supplies is a bag of training tricks. If he is competent, he has a set of training techniques appropriate for the given situation.

This leaves entirely open the questions of: What is the training all about? What are you training for? Where are you trying to go? In other words, the discussion ordinarily will be made external to the actual training method. But the point is, of course, that any time you engage in training, you are making some kind of ideological commitment. Sensitivity training, for example, assumes that organization problems of various kinds reside in the nature of interpersonal relations rather than in any other set of conditions considered as highly relevant within other theoretical perspectives.

The VISTA training in Colorado also makes what I consider to be problematic ideological assumptions. For preparing volunteers to engage aggressively the established community power system, the training seems vulnerable to the following questions: Are trainees given adequate theoretical descriptions of the nature of the power systems? Are the volunteers given adequate resources to carry out their struggle successfully? When the volunteers leave, will the indigenous poor be more, rather than less, vulnerable? Finally, will such programs affect the basic economic and occupational factors which appear central to the problem of poverty?

The Colorado programs' significance is not at all diminished by questions such as these. The kind of programs being undertaken by Mr. Higman and his associates are most significant for correctional training and for higher education. To put it another way, both college professors and correctional administrators have much to learn from Howard Higman.

TRAINING ORGANIZATION MATRIX

	In-House — — — — — — → Outside					
	a. Line Supervisor	b. Personnel or Training Officer	c. Manager (Warden or Administrator)	d. State Civil Service or Govt. Agency	e. Universities, Associations	f. Commercial Enterprises
1. Identfying needs—diagnosis (method, frequency)						
2. Selecting program design—prescription						
3. Developing curriculum content						
4. Developing or selecting materials, aids						
5. Selecting the teacher or leader	a					
	b					
	c					
	d					
	e					
	f					
6. Selecting the site a. Location b. Kind c. Sponsorship						
7. Deciding relationship to other training or other trainees						
8. Selecting and executing method of evaluation						
9. Establishing system of reinforcement and rewards						

ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR TRAINING

David C. Jelinek

In this presentation on the organizational arrangements of employee training, I will attempt to spread before us several dimensions, variables, or options from which a particular training program can be built. I think it unnecessary to point out to this group that choices do exist; but it may be helpful to realize how manifold and complex the choices of organizational structure are.

Elements of a Training Program

To begin with, I should like to identify nine constituent functions or elements of a training program, as shown in the matrix.

1. *Identification of needs, the diagnosis.* This is the determination that a program or operational deficiency stems, at least in part, from a staff deficiency — whether it is a deficiency of knowledge or skill, understanding or attitude — and the identification of the employees to be trained.

2. *Selection of a program design.* This is the basic decision to select a traditional classroom method, a seminar, on-the-job coaching, self-study, lab situation, or some other design and also the selection of schedule — short-term, long-term, full-time, or part-time.

3. *Development of curriculum content.* Just what is it that you are going to impart? How does it meet a detailed specification of the deficiency to be corrected?

4. *Selection of materials.* For example, aids, texts, case studies, exercises, films, tests, and questionnaires.

5. *Selection of the teacher, the leader, or the coach in the conduct of the program.* What is his relationship to the trainee? What does he know? What teaching skills must he bring to the task. What other identity has he, particularly if he is an outsider? Will he play a fixed role, or will he be a circuit rider, dropping in from time to time?

6. *Site selection.* You might subdivide this into three sub-elements. The first deals with location — determining the desirability of distance from the job site and the degree to which a distant learning site may contribute to learning. The second sub-element is the kind of site — a school classroom, laboratory, on-the-job, or some other kind of conference site. The third sub-element of location is the sponsorship of the site. Is there an advantage to having the site under the wing of the employing organization? Or perhaps it should be sponsored by somebody else, such as a college, a foundation, an association, some other governmental agency, or even a commercial enterprise.

7. *Relationship of the program to other training or other trainees.* Closely tied in with the foregoing steps is the determination as to whether the training may be more effective if it is combined with other training methods, including the mingling of trainees with those of other occupations or other organizations.

8. *Evaluation.* By whom should the evaluation be made, when, how often, or continuously? What methods should we use?

Mr. Jelinek is assistant director of the Bureau of Prisons, U.S. Department of Justice.

9. *Reinforcement and reward.* What needs to be done to prevent the nullification of training benefits by continuation of outmoded and negative reinforcement factors? How can we create positive factors back on the job?

Now, this is a list of nine elements somewhat in the order in which the training planner might pick them up. But each of these nine elements operates with a set of variables or options. We might fill in the second dimension. For each of these nine elements, we might choose one or more levels of action depending on whether we are talking about in-house resources or external resources.

On the in-house side, we might identify first the line supervisor, second the local personnel officer or training officer. At the third level, perhaps the manager or a member of his staff, whether this is at the level of warden, the chief of probation, or the director or commissioner. You will recognize that many of these determinations are somewhat arbitrary.

Moving a little way outside the immediate organization, we could select the civil service authority or the central training facilities of the government. Or we might choose another governmental agency operating in a related or unrelated field. Moving all the way outside, we might go to the university, college, associations, public agencies, or other jurisdictions. Then finally, a commercial enterprise whether it is engaged principally in training or trains incidentally to some other main function.

The chart combines these two sets of variables: the first nine elements as decisions to be made and the second set of elements as levels of resources which may be applied against any of the first nine. Element Number 5 has been subdivided into six levels. Not only must we decide who selects the teacher, but we must also decide from which of the six sources the teacher might come.

There may be a mathematician among us who would be amused by calculating the number of permutations and combinations that can be made by this array of choices. I think that it is sufficient to note that our choice is not simply the choice of in-house versus (if you will pardon the term) out-house.

Diagnosis of Needs and Choice of Methods

In discussing organization for training, Element Number 1, the diagnosis, is the horse that must come before the cart. The first step is to identify the mission to which the employees' efforts are to contribute. If we don't keep the mission in mind through all nine elements of the training effort, we may end up with an employee being task-oriented rather than goal-oriented.

The environment or the working climate of the training will be a prime factor in determining the training program and its organization. I think we can adapt an old correctional adage here that we have to start where the trainee is and we also have to keep in mind where he is going to be when the training is over.

The kind of training needed is another prime determination. I should like to give an illustration. If we need to teach new officers locking and counting procedures, there isn't a vocational program, a college, or a government agency which can teach these procedures outside the institution itself. I think we can agree that this sort of mechanical operation is definitely best suited to an in-house operation. On the other hand, if you consider a middle manager who has been nurtured in a single system or institution and has developed tunnel vision, so that he does not know what is going on outside the wall, this need may best be met by a training situation divorced from the institution as to its organization, conduct, and even its site.

In general, we can distinguish six levels of training needs from the most specific and immediate to the more general and long-range.

At the lowest, first level, we find the replication or the reinforcement of established practices, most of them routine mechanical operations.

At the second level, we have the adaptation or revision of ongoing practices and functions.

The third level is the injection of new program of a fairly limited or specific nature.

The fourth level is the launching of broader, more subtle programs or their integration with ongoing programs.

The fifth level is the inculcation of a totally new philosophy of mission or program or management.

The sixth and final level is the generalized mind-stretching or horizon-broadening kind of program.

Selection of the Trainer

Just as a starter, let us consider the proposition that training must be performed by the expert, by the man who knows most about it. This proposition says that, if you wish to indoctrinate your employees with some basic psychology, you go to a psychologist, whether he is on your staff or the staff of a local university. We had an example of this in one of our institutions where we wanted to teach our officers some basic psychology and counseling techniques. We turned to a local college for assistance. We do not question the fact that the instructor assigned to this program was an expert, in an academic sense, in psychology and counseling techniques. But we learned to our dismay that he lacked the ability to apply this knowledge to real life situations. That is, he did not seem to be able to relate to, influence, or change the students that were assigned to him. He could preach it, but he could not do it himself.

In a narrowly and clearly defined training situation, it may be better to have a non-expert whose substantive knowledge does not go much beyond the scope of the course of study. With such an instructor, you are less likely to waste time on extraneous matters; the instructor stays on the subject. So the proposition that the expert must be a carrier of information or understanding of ideas is not necessarily valid.

Mixing Trainees

Let me say a little more about the mixing of other trainees and the transfer of training content to its direct application on the job.

First, what values of the training experience will be enhanced by mingling the trainee with students from other departments or institutions or other government agencies or even colleges? What criteria do we use in deciding to expose the trainees to new colleagues as well as to new knowledge and skills?

The second consideration is the transfer of learning. First, there is the kind that transfers from the abstract to the concrete, or from the general to the specific. The second kind consists of removing specific concrete training from one setting to another. Would a course in supervision for forest rangers, for instance, be useful training for correctional officers?

I might mention the rapidly growing training device of employee exchange and internships. We have had these for many years, of course, in the medical profession, the military, and the academic world, aimed at encouraging the cross-fertilization of ideas. We have scholarships and Fulbright grants, Junior Year Abroad, and work-study programs. (In fact, these are growing so much now in higher education that I understand some colleges are going to try a new device called Sophomore Year on Campus.)

Within systems such as the federal, which are large enough to provide this kind of opportunity, there have been policies to encourage movement from one institution to another. There has been much less movement from one organizational specialty to another, to broaden and integrate organizational functions and philosophies. But every organization can cite deplorable examples of the opposite extreme, where there is no rotation, where a man may live out his whole career on a particular tower and even on a particular shift.

Now we have a rapid opening of this technique across organizational lines and even across jurisdictional lines. You are probably familiar with the Muskie Bill (S 699) and a companion administration bill (S 1485) introduced in this session of Congress which would authorize the exchange of federal personnel with state and local employees for periods of up to two years. We understand that there is a very good chance that this bill will be passed in some form by this Congress.

We now have spread out before us an array of ideas and considerations which we might discuss either in generalities or in detail, on the impact of organization upon the training function. I feel very strongly about the question of organization itself. Organization is a process, not a static condition. We must not only change organizations but make the changes themselves, and the process of change, an instrument of management.

I should like to close with a short comment by an observer of university-agency relations.

> Universities are poor institutions for fostering organizational change in other institutions. University commitment is usually limited to brief contact. Academic careers are not built on working closely and over a long time with other institutions on the "mundane" task of operationalizing training. Why, when trainees — and the institutions they represent — want clarity of goals, do university researchers evaluate attitude change? Probably because this can be done in a limited time with no commitment to follow-up. It fits neatly into the academician's time schedule and career line. What follows is a pretty waltz. The [correctional] institution wants to change — but not too much. The university wants to train — but not too long. The Government funder wants [institutional] change — but his granting program limits such change. Hovering above the dance are the spirits of evaluation and research, two gods that are seldom pursued obsessively.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Identification of Training Needs. The presentation has been helpful in that it has dealt with how training is organized. However, it seems that we return to a basic problem that must be addressed before the training takes place, and that is the identification of training needs. What kind of training is needed and who should be trained?

The identification of training needs is very closely related to development and selection of program design. The training needs will depend on the end result desired, and this is intimately related to the goals of the total program. This point is reflected in yesterday's discussion about the need for an ideology. Typically, content and method become the orverriding concern in training, at the expense of ideology.

The identification of training needs is not the exclusive responsibility of any one person. These needs can be identified by the line supervisor, the training officer, the warden or other administrator, an outside government agency, universities, or private agencies.

The potential trainee should not be overlooked as a source of needed identification. Moreover, it should be possible even to use offenders as sources of identifying needs and perhaps involve them in the training.

The fault in much of the training is that it often trains in those areas where a need is well identified, for example, mechanical procedures (how to take counts, lock doors, etc.). Although these are important, they may not be the areas of most imperative training need. There is also a tendency to develop training programs on the basis of critical incidents. Something happens that points up a lack of understanding or some deficiency, and we react by developing a training program. This type of response is indicative of poor planning or organization of training. It also emphasizes the lack of ideology. Knowing the job means more than ability to perform the mechanical, routine operations. It means knowing the goals of the organization; how they are to be achieved; and the contribution and significance of that small segment of activity performed by the individual employee.

The basis for training can be either training for deficiency or training for full development of potential. The former implies a lack of individual capability. It is a negative approach and one that may adversely affect the training climate.

The employee development approach is positive. It implies capability on the part of the learner and confidence in him by the organization. Furthermore, in this time of rapidly changing concepts and techniques, we cannot look back and measure today's performance against yesterday's requirements. If we are training for the future, only some of today's expectations can serve as useful guidelines. This is why training must have an ideological base.

Function of the Training Officer. The selection of instructors can pose difficulties, if the training officer is viewed by the administrator as the logical person to do the training. It is or should be obvious that the range of material to be presented makes it impossible to designate one person as the main training resource.

The training officer's primary function is planning and organizing the training program. He is also the person who can be called upon to fill in if some speaker fails to appear. He should, therefore, always be prepared to substitute or to alter the program. He must also constantly monitor the training to evaluate presentation of material, speakers' preparedness, organization of the preparation, and class response to the instructor.

Use of Experts. Although the agency may have a variety of persons with the expertise to meet many of the training needs, there are subjects which require outside instructors. These people often meet with resistance because they are outsiders or because they don't speak the language of the agency. How can the outside instructor break through this resistance?

Obviously, the instructor must demonstrate competence. He can do this by solid preparation for his presentation. This includes an understanding of correctional terminology so that he can breach the communication barrier. He must also be knowledgeable in correctional problems. For example, if the class is comprised of correctional officers, he must be aware of problems in inmate-officer relations from the officer's point of view.

Typically, however, the outsider will always meet with resistance in the beginning. As he demonstrates an ability to communicate his subject and a sensitivity to the needs of the trainees, he will increase his effectiveness. Some speakers make the error of talking down to their audience, with negative results. Professors, on the other hand, sometimes make the error of giving theoretical presentations which do not appear to be based on reality. In this instance, lack of familiarity with the organization or its operations and functions is evident. It is not sufficient to present theory or principles; it is necessary to link them with practical daily situations. Examples must be given showing the applicability of the theory to various situations. In doing this successfully, the instructor assists the students in organizing their experience in a meaningful way. The ideal instructor would be the person who has both theoretical training and experience and the ability to combine the two. An alternative method would be to have the theoretician followed by a person who can relate the trainees to the practical results of the theory.

A further impediment to effective training is sometimes caused by the fact that there is resistance to change throughout the organization. The outside trainer is viewed as a person whose instruction may create change. How can this be dealt with? Again, we return to ideology. Unquestionably resistance to change is a normal reaction in bureaucracy. There is even more resistance when the nature and consequence of the change are not clear. Massive resistance to change can be expected in an organization where little change has been taking place and where training is a new experience. It can also occur if the top-level administrator who has initiated the training has not clarified the organizational goals.

In some instances, expected resistance is dissipated by training for new roles which encompass an expansion of tasks and responsibilities. In other situations, the quality of leadership may be the determining factor. Training is not a routine procedure and must not be approached routinely. It requires the support of all levels of administration.

Reinforcement of Training. The question here is not how training should be reinforced, but by whom. Typically, everyone is interested in training, but few wish to be involved in it. Also, those doing the training seldom are responsible for reinforcement. This is true of both outside speakers and administrators. We might seek the solution in Mr. Higman's presentation. In that training situation, all the personnel responsible for training actively participated. They demonstrated their interest and concern by attending every session and taking notes. This is an excellent first step. Secondly, they supervised the trainees and evaluated them while the program was in process.

A correctional training program may not be able to require this degree of participation from the group who are the principal reinforcers of training: the supervisors. These are the persons who can most effectively reinforce training. The supervisor evaluates performance, sets expectations, and recommends individuals for pay increases and promotions. In short, he has leverage. He is the person who by his attitude and leadership will reinforce the training.

Rotation as Training. Training in corrections is not consistent in quality, and in many systems it may not exist at all. Furthermore, some systems have training capability and expertise not present elsewhere. How can we make this training available to others? Would it be possible to use facilities where certain training is available to persons outside the system? In this way, an individual could go and pick up certain skills that he could bring back to his system. A variation of this in industry is what is called "rotation" or "programming" — rotating assignments in order to accelerate experience. An engineer, just out of college, has limited value until he has had a couple of years' experience. If he is given a six-month vocational transfer in one area and in another area and another area, from a profesisonal point of view he will get ten years' experience in about two years. The same thing is true with staff and with management.

One of the problems is to convince the organization that rotation is not going to disrupt operations. For instance in a personnel department, the wage and salary man takes charge of employment; the employment man takes charge of training; the training man takes charge of labor relations; and so forth.

Industry's findings have been that people with a fresh environment are very creative. They are like a kid walking into a factory. They point to various procedures and ask, "Why do we do this?" Nobody knows why we do it, only that we have been doing it for ten years. You get this kind of thing from rotation programs. Whenever you can sell it in industry you get tremendous benefits, some that you would not even suspect. From the point of view of the industrial trainer, this is one of the most effective training methods.

Maximizing the Training Experience by the Use of Mixed Groups. In many instances, there is value in mixing correctional and noncorrectional personnel in training. This results in the infusion of ideas from individuals with completely different points of view, who are looking at a problem from another frame of reference. This may be one method of subjecting correctional practice to inquiry and forcing persons to review and justify procedures that have little more than a traditional rationale.

In terms of levels of supervisory and administrative responsibility, the higher up the ladder one goes, the less a correctionalist and the more a manager he becomes. For such a person, advanced training at a place like the Brookings Institution, and perhaps even in industrial executive training programs, may be more applicable. He may find that the problems faced by a correctional manager are not significantly different from those faced by managers in other types of organizations.

EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Carol H. Weiss

The subject of evaluation has already cropped up several times during this seminar. Carl Kludt and Dave Jelinek have stressed the importance of evaluation as an integral part of in-service training. Mr. Kludt talked of the continuing sequence of research-development-implementation-evaluation; Mr. Jelinek presented evaluation as one of the nine basic elements of the training activity.

Along with these supportive statements, earlier speakers have also highlighted some of the perplexities of evaluation. Mr. Kludt said that if evaluation has a good quantitative measure of training effectiveness, like lower repair costs for gauges, that's all to the good. But in many cases, no such indicator of success exists, and then we can ask trainees for their opinions: how they rate the sessions; what they would change if they were to do the training again; what they intend to apply. Training, he emphasized, has definite objectives and is designed to change behavior on the job. But since it is usually difficult to measure behavior change directly, the subjective opinions of trainees provide a stand-in measure.

On the other hand, Mr. Higman's vivid talk showed that training can be disagreeable and stressful and yet be effective. The trainees may dislike it intensely and still learn. In fact, through its very upset of preconceptions and its unpleasantness, it can provide a powerful stimulus to learning.

I think this raises some questions about the measures we use to evaluate training. I would like to come back to this because I think it is one of the vital points in the discussion of evaluation.

What Evaluation Is

First, let us get to a definition of what we mean by evaluation. In the broadest sense, all in-service training is "evaluated" in terms of feasibility, appeal, and informal assessment.

Feasibility is demonstrated by getting the training program going. Funds are found; course objectives, content, and method are developed; instructors are hired from inside or outside the system; trainees are assigned; their jobs are covered while they are in training; a meeting room is provided; people come to sessions; the schedule is followed. In-service training is shown to be a viable activity.

At the same time, the agency gauges the appeal of the training. Agency administrative and training staff learn something about the attitudes of trainees, potential trainees, and their supervisors. They see whether trainees attend sessions regularly, whether they are hostile or enthusiastic, attentive or bored. They find out whether other workers are interested in attending. They learn whether supervisors are pleased, or reluctant, to release workers for training. There is, in short, some indication of the attractiveness of in-service training to the institution.

On another level, everyone involved in a training activity forms some notions of how well the training is going. They all see the project close up,

---

Mrs. Weiss is on the staff of the Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia University.

and they are aware of the day-to-day occurrences. The administrators and the trainers are knowledgeable people, and they form judgments about the merits of the training by informal, casual conversations and observations.

These kinds of informal evaluations accompany every activity. But what we are talking about this morning is evaluation in its formal sense — systematic and objective research on the outcomes of the training. In evaluation research, objectives of the training are defined, the training objectives are specified in behavioral terms, and measurements are made of the extent to which objectives are achieved.

When Is Evaluation Research Warranted?

When is it worth while to engage in this kind of evaluation? When should an agency seriously embark on evaluation research? I would like to suggest that it is not an ingredient that goes with every training program. I think that there are at least four kinds of circumstances when evaluation research is really *not* warranted.

The first circumstance would be when the kinds of informal assessment we've just mentioned answer the agency's needs. They really don't want to know anything more than that the training program is feasible and accepted and seems to be moving along. There is no need for evaluation, because there are no further questions.

A second case when evaluation is unwarranted is when people in authority have already determined the future of the training program. There may be no funds available for training next year; and, no matter what evaluation might show, there just isn't going to be more training. Or (and I was once in a situation of this sort) the future directions for training have already been settled — training manuals have been printed and distributed; trainers have been trained and assigned to localities; and, whatever happens, the training is going to follow its prescribed course. Evaluation is meant to give direction for action, and when its results are obviously not going to get a hearing, it is a footless undertaking.

Another case that is unsuitable for evaluation is a training program without any clear orientation. Perhaps it is being developed as it goes along, and the nature of the input shifts from day to day. If evaluation research shows that the training has had little effect, this may be not because it was poorly conceived, but because it had not yet jelled. Evaluation is premature. It is better to save the money and evaluate the next time around, when the goals are better defined and the course better run. Similarly, if the trainers can not agree on the purpose of the training — what knowledge, attitudes and behaviors the training is intended to produce — the program is a poor candidate for evaluation. Evaluation looks at the outcomes of a program in terms of the effects it intends to bring about. If there is no consensus on desired ends, evaluation is fruitless — and, parenthetically, the training may be less than sterling, too.

Lastly, if there is no money for evaluation, or if there is no qualified evaluator available, then it is probably better not to start. Evaluation is a demanding business, and it calls for time, money, imagination, tenacity, and skill. Without these, its yield is likely to be low-grade.

Let's look now at the obverse question: When should a program be evaluated? My answer would be: In all cases when an agency really wants to know how good a job the training is doing so that it can do better, and it is willing to support the evaluation in terms of resources and administrative backing.

Identifying the Purpose of Evaluation Research

Within this broad framework, there is latitude for a range of different approaches to evaluation. It is important to specify in advance the particular purposes the evaluation is expected to serve and the use to be made of its results. Otherwise, conflicts in purpose and disparities in expectation are likely to muddy the field. When it comes time to put the findings to use, it may turn out that the data reported are irrelevant to the major concerns of decision-makers.

Let us look at one mythical agency that decides to evaluate its in-service training activities. Although there has been agreement on the decision to evaluate, people in different positions have come to this decision on divergent grounds.

A top administrator has OK'd the evaluation because research — like mother, flag, and education — is a "good thing." He views the evaluation as an indication of the progressive nature of his administration, and about all he intends doing with the report is to bind it in a fancy cover so that he can display the forward-looking stance of his department.

The head of the personnel and training section in this same imaginary agency looks to evaluation to justify the expansion of his program, staff, and budget. He's not looking for a whitewash, but he's sure the program is good and he wants to prove it — with statistics and diagrams.

One of the trainers has conceived of the evaluation as a way of finding out which training methods and techniques are most effective. He is seriously interested in comparing the merits of lectures, films, programmed instruction, small group discussion, and field trips. Although this is a possible and seemingly plausible approach to evaluation, experience indicates that this type of research is conducted more appropriately and with sounder results in controlled laboratory-like settings. In agency training programs, it is very seldom possible to approximate the experimental conditions necessary, nor does such research tell much about the effectiveness of the total training program.

Another trainer expects the evaluation to provide immediate feedback to help in the day-to-day improvement of the training program. He is thinking of minor alterations — changes in seating and room arrangements, in length of sessions and scheduling, in methods of presentation, in the size of the group trained, or in the "mix" of trainees from different divisions and different hierarchical levels. With rigorous experimental and control conditions, research can collect hard evidence on such topics. But during the usual kind of ongoing training program, evaluators would have to rely on current opinions of trainees and trainers and possibly some speculations of their own. An agency evaluation geared to such questions would probably do little more than collect by written questionnaires what the trainer could find out by asking for people's opinions himself. Nor would the agency learn much about the longer-run effects of its training efforts.

Let us assume that there is another character in this story — we'll call him a staff development supervisor. He was the initiator of the evalution idea, and he holds more traditionally accepted views of the purpose of this evaluation — to gauge objectively the extent to which the training program is meeting the goals for which it was established. This is what evaluation is intended to do.

Unfortunately, despite the need for clarity in setting objectives that has been stressed by previous speakers here, training objectives in real life tend to be stated fuzzily, if at all, and to glitter with untestable abstractions. They may range from getting workers to fill out forms properly, to making custodial officers "treatment-oriented," to imparting understanding of the role of correctional institutions in contemporary American society.

Nevertheless, despite the haziness, staff development programs have definite behavioral objectives. Staff training is intended to improve the worker's job performance. He's supposed to *do* something after training that he didn't do before, or do it in a discernibly different way.

With the help of a skilled evaluator, intended changes in knowledge, attitudes, and performance can be identified, and specific indicators of change developed. Then this kind of evaluation can lead to wide-ranging conclusions on the strengths and weaknesses of the training program in meeting its objectives. If put to use, conclusions from such a study could lead to useful revisions in the whole training program.

There may be a further purpose for evaluation. It can go beyond assessing how well the training is meeting the objectives set by the agency and look at how well it contributes to broader social aims. That is, evaluators need not accept the agency's statement of training objectives as the final word. They can bring in further standards. For example, an agency's staff development program may be designed to teach workers certain casework skills. Traditional evaluation shows that the training succeeds; workers become good caseworkers. But with the given setting, program, clientele, and aims of the agency, these casework skills turn out to be irrelevant or inappropriate. The ultimate social aims are not being met. It is like a tribe doing a superlative job of training its shamans in the intricate rituals of rain-making. They perform faultlessly, and the trainers are satisfied. But the evaluator asks a further question: Does it rain?

To embark on an evaluation of this type indicates a willingness to question traditional assumptions. If the evaluation shows negative results, the agency will have to consider the revision of its training objectives and changes in deep-rooted assumptions and ideas.

The purposes set for evaluation have important consequences for the kind of evaluation that is done and the kinds of conclusions that emerge. It is essential that the purposes be specifically identified and their possible effects be faced up to as soon as the idea of conducting an evaluation is considered. When staff at different levels have different purposes and expectations in mind and the differences are ignored instead of being resolved, the evaluation will suffer. Helen Witmer said this very well:

> What is to be achieved by undertaking this study? What do those who want the study hope to achieve? What usefulness may the findings have? The fact that questions such as these are seldom squarely faced and answered is what accounts, in considerable part, both for the dissatisfaction of many consumers of research, including program administrators, with the findings of studies and also for the rather muddled character of many studies themselves.[1]

Measures of the Effectiveness of Training

Let's get back now to measures of effectiveness and some of the comments made earlier on what an evaluation should measure. How will we know if we have an effective training program? What kinds of indicators of success do we use?

---

[1] Helen L. Witmer, "A Brief Guide to the Evaluation of Measures for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency," *International Review of Criminal Policy*, XXI (Summer 1963), 34.

Opinions of Trainees

Many evaluations rely on the opinions of trainees. They are asked what sessions they liked, which they got the most from, how satisfied they were with the training, and similar things. There is some value in this. In some areas, trainees' opinions are the true criterion. If you ask them whether assignments were clear, they are the ones who know. In other cases, trainees' satisfaction may be an intervening variable between their attending the course and applying its learnings.

But a training program is designed to accomplish a purpose. In many situations, the trainees are not likely to be qualified judges as to whether the purpose was achieved. Trainees may have hazy or unrealistic expectations of what the training is for. They may like or dislike it for reasons that are not closely related to the intent.

I remember doing an evaluation of the training for the Domestic Peace Corps program in Harlem a few years ago. I looked directly at the relationship between trainees' satisfaction with the training and their subsequent changes in knowledge, in attitude, and in job performance. There was no relation whatsoever between satisfaction and any of the other measures of effectiveness that we used. Therefore, it seems to me that the popularity contest model for evaluation is a questionable one.

Changes in Trainees' Knowledge

I'd like to mention five other kinds of measures that can be used. One is changes in trainees' knowledge. Training programs usually aim to impart information or concepts or theories. Tests can be administered before and after the training. The question is, "Did the trainees hear and understand and remember what was said?" Of course, there are sometimes problems with this. I talked with a man who was running training for juvenile court judges, and he said that you cannot test the judge. In other settings, as well, it is sometimes hard to administer what looks like a school test to trainees. But with ingenuity, measures of this type can be both palatable and informative.

Changes in Trainees' Attitudes

The second kind of measure is changes in attitude. Where the training intends to influence attitudes and values, for example toward tolerance of minority viewpoints, measures of attitude can be useful. The testing of changes in attitude is particularly important when training aims to change the way the worker perceives his role and function in the agency and his orientation to practice. Attitude measures reveal the extent to which job-relevant perceptions and attitudes undergo change.

Predisposition to Practice

A third type of measure is predisposition to practice. This measure concerns trainees' perception of the legitimacy and the usefulness of the new learning. The first two measures show to what extent the trainees understood and remembered the training content and to what extent they changed in certain attitudes and functional orientations. But do they see the training content as being useful to their own work? A probation officer may learn about and accept, in theory, a therapeutic rather than a control approach to juvenile probationers. But does he see this as a proper role for a probation agency? Is it a useful approach to take in his particular job? Does he believe his supervisors and his colleagues go along with it?

Further, does the trainee intend to put his learning into practice? Does he see ways of applying it? Does he think that he can make the transfer to the job? When and how?

Whatever his predispositions, the probability that the trainee will actually apply what he has learned depends in part on conditions outside of the training and outside of himself. The structure of the job may make application impossible. His supervisor might not agree with the new ideas that he received from the training course. His colleagues may think that they are pretty ridiculous and give him a hard time. The system of rewards and sanctions in the agency may militate against the practice of new learning. There has to be a system of reinforcement and reward for the new behavior.

These are very important elements in seeing that training survives the return to the job. If trainees want to apply their training, and are prevented by supervisory or staff actions, by divergent client expectations, by structural blocks in the organization, or other barriers, this is an important finding from evaluation. It should lead to an investigation of the appropriateness of the curriculum for existing agency conditions, as well as to study of the appropriateness of the agency system of rewards and sanctions to the kinds of change the training is trying to get across.

Changes in Job Performance

A further measure that evaluation can use is changes in job performance. To what extent have trainees introduced the new or improved practices into their own work? I have picked up examples, from some recent studies, of behavioral measures that have been used on job performance. Have there been changes in the frequency of referral of inmates to educational or treatment programs? Has there been a change in the way correctional officers supervise the movement of their groups, *i.e.*, have they let them stroll and walk instead of marching? Are more disciplinary actions taken in the unit rather than referred to higher authority? Has there been an increase in individual or group counseling?

Where desired changes in practice relate more to increased insight and improved style than to changes in function, measurement is more difficult. Ratings by supervisors are sometimes used, although such ratings often tell you more about the supervisor than about the worker. Ideally, ratings should be "blind," with the rater unaware of whether the subject was or was not in the training group. Often this is impossible to contrive. But very carefully defined supervisory ratings can sometimes be useful. Other measures of work performance that have been used are reports by administrators, by workers themselves, and by clients. One current study of probation workers is asking probationers before and after the training what their worker is actually doing. What specific things does he talk about? What kinds of help does he give? This is one way of trying to find out whether the probation officer's behavior has changed.

The more the evaluation can deal with specific acts that demonstrate desirable practice, the better the data are likely to be. I do not want to minimize the difficulties of measuring job behavior, but it has been done and we are continuing to learn how to do it better.

Effect on the Client

A final type of measure for evaluation is the effect on the client. The ultimate value of any in-service training program lies in its effects on the people whom the trained worker serves. Measurements of this kind of effect will not be necessary in most instances where experience has already proved the worth of the particular training that is being given. But in experimental training programs where innovations in theory and content are introduced, it may be important to go on and look at effects on the client population. Are there differences in client outcome between trained and untrained workers? Do the beneficiaries of service of trained workers show less recidivism, higher aspirations, greater optimism about their future, higher school achievement, or changes in other measures appropriate to the particular population?

Of course, the farther away these goals are from the training in terms of time and intervening contacts, the harder it is to attribute the differential client outcomes to the training program. If evaluation should follow the data-gathering process outlined here, and discover at Stage 1 that the trainees did not grasp the concepts of the training, or at Stage 4 that they never put them into practice, then it is useless to talk about the training causing any changes in clients. But if the evaluation has built a model of successive inputs and relationships, and if it can show differential learning, differential job performance, and differential client outcome, then it is coming closer to an evaluation of the content of the curriculum. Evaluation can determine whether those who are trained know more of what was taught; whether those who know more, perform better, that is, more in line with what the training has prescribed; whether those who are performing in the approved manner are having more success with clients. No longer is the evaluation dealing only with the training methods and techniques and the extent to which they succeed in transmitting messages. The evaluation in this case extends to the messages themselves and their social utility in agency practice.

Evaluation as a Guide to Change

The evaluation is thus a three-part analysis:

1. Do the trainees learn? Have they shown changes in knowledge, attitude, and predisposition to apply new knowledge? If not, changes should be made in the training program.

2. Do the trainees put their learning into practice? If not, the operation and organization of the agency should be examined for any barriers it may be presenting to the utilization of the training.

3. Do the trainees who practice what they learn have better results with their clients? If not, the agency should re-examine what it is teaching.

A very interesting evaluation is being done by Ward and Kassebaum in California on group counseling in an adult institution. This appears to be a particularly well-designed evaluation. It is being conducted in a new institution. Inmates were randomly assigned to each of the four cell blocks, and there was very little intermixing of inmates from different blocks. In one of the blocks, all the inmates received group counseling from trained counselors. In another, nobody received group counseling. In a third, the inmates received group counseling and had some kind of self-government as well. The fourth block, with a population of special cases, was not included in the study. The evaluators are following the inmates during their time in the institution and up to two years after their release. They appear to be finding that, after the inmates have been out for two years, the men in the group counseling units are not doing any better in terms of recidivism than the control group. This is an example of a study that looks beyond the effects of the training on the trainees to its effects on the ultimate target group.

In most cases, much less extensive evaluation is called for. Often, there's a fairly simple measure that will answer the really significant question about effectiveness. For example, in the Vera Bail Bond project, the only measure needed in the evaluation was the proportion of people released on their own recognizance who showed up in court. When it turned out that just as high a proportion appeared as among those released on bail, the worth of the program was demonstrated. In some Higher-Horizons-type programs, the pay-off measure is the proportion of youngsters who stay in school, graduate, or go on to higher education.

The important thing is that evaluation deal with the kinds of acts that the training is designed to produce. In that way, it provides significant information that helps in planning and replanning training programs to yield the greatest return in worker knowledge and competence.

QUESTION AND ANSWER

A number of questions were asked of Mrs. Weiss after her presentation. One seemed so important to corrections that the answer is reproduced here.

Q: Who does the evaluation? That is, what kinds of evaluation does the agency itself assume the responsibility for, and what kinds of evaluation does the agency feel have to be farmed out in order to get independent, "objective" evaluation?

A: There are several factors involved in who should do the evaluation. One is the question of confidence. It is vital that administrators have confidence in the professional skills of the evaluation staff. Sometimes an agency is impressed only by the credentials and reputation of academic researchers and assumes that its own people are second-raters. Or, conversely, it may view outside evaluators as too remote from the realities, too ivory-tower and abstract, to produce information of practical value. Occasionally it is important to ensure public confidence in the evaluation results by engaging evaluators who have no relation to and no stake in the program to be studied. Competence, of course, is a big factor in ensuring confidence and should be given particular attention.

A second consideration is objectivity. Evaluation should be insulated as far as possible from any manipulation or bias in interpretation that will make things look good.. I don't want to imply that in-house evaluation is per se less objective than research done by independent outsiders. Some of the best evaluation I know has been done by agency staff members who used "hard" measures of effectiveness and treated the data with scrupulous integrity. But objectivity needs to be considered.

Third is the question of closeness to the program. Evaluators should know what is really going on in the program. They can't accept the written plan as a true reflection of the training, because shifts and changes can significantly alter its intent and thrust. Unless they know what actually happened, what the training consisted of in operation, they'll be evaluating a phantom program and attributing effects, or no effects, to a program that never took place. They need to know, too, what the real isues are that the agency is seeking answers to.

A fourth factor is utilization of results. You want the conclusions that emerge from evaluation to get a hearing in decision-making councils. Sometimes outsiders, with their prestige and authority, are best suited to ensure that the agency uses the results of evaluation. Sometimes it is staff members on the spot, who attend all the meetings and have regular access to management, who can see that evaluation results are heard.

The four considerations have to be balanced out against each other. The decision on whether the evaluation should be done by a university, an independent research organization or consulting firm, or by the agency's own research staff has to be made in terms of the operant factors in each situation. There is no one "right" site for evaluation. Current needs and conditions have to be weighed in each individual case.

DISCUSSION

David Twain

There is a difference between research and evaluation. You can do a specific kind of very technical research. On the other hand, from a management standpoint, you can do a job of evaluating that may not be as sophisticated. You don't have to research every training project.

Yesterday, Carl Kludt made some other distinctions between research and evaluation. Research adds power to the program and requires continuous support. Evaluation is also a part of the ongoing program; it takes place at the end of the sequence. Thus, we have research, development, implementation, and evaluation and revision. The research gives us objective data and some conclusions; evaluation is our judgment of the findings in terms of usefulness of the program. The implication is that research, evaluation, programming, feedback and so on are largely a management responsibility. Now that may apply as much to industry as it does to correctional manpower.

There are different kinds of research. Some research is generic. For example, someone wants to know the nature of violent behavior or the nature of the dynamic relationships between women in correctional institutions, and he asks specific questions. On the other hand, some of the best training and the best research in the past five or six years in the crime and delinquency area has been process-oriented. The investigator had the goal of taking a close look at the program with the objective of possibly modifying it. Incidentally, it also served to train psychologists and others who were involved. That was a good example of on-the-job training, learning about programs. The various people involved, the line officers in the institutions, really scrutinized the program and in this way learned different facets of it.

A good researcher doesn't wear a white coat. He is an expert in asking the right questions. He has to do enough casing of the joint and working with the administration to find out what the right questions are. His expertise comes in knowing how to frame the questions in such a way that they will be answerable. This is process research as opposed to the generic type. It is not very different from working with the training program, or whatever kind of endeavor you are in, where you ask questions.

Evaluation should not be attempted unless there is a clear definition of the questions to be answered. The skills of the evaluator come into play here,

---

Mr. Twain is chief of the crime and delinquency section, community research and services branch, National Institute of Mental Health.

since not only does he know how to find out what the important questions are but he also has other skills. These include translating questions into a context where they can be answered with the resources at hand.

To what extent is the researcher responsible for the research results? In many cases of research and evaluation, the researcher is not only unconcerned with the uses of the results of the studies, but he also feels that his role is to remain neutral. His job, he thinks, ends when the study is completed, and he should not get involved in the give-and-take of organizational politics and decision-making. He feels no responsibility for interpreting the research findings and pointing out their implications for the agency. Instead, the evaluator should be responsible for pointing out the implications of some of the changes that derive logically from research. Once you change one thing, a lot of other things are going to change. These points are closely interrelated if you measure some of the changes in program that the research seems to imply.

There is another way to talk about all this. There is a word that has not been used in this connection, and that is "commitment." We have talked about commitment — commitment of the institution to the training and commitment of institutional administrators or program administrators. Now, we are talking about the commitment of the researcher or the outside expert or the consultant to his participation in the program. He knows when he begins the study that he has a commitment. Sometimes it is difficult for a certain level of staff to really understand that he has that commitment to the findings and to their implications. One of the ways to look at this is: You do not do research, you do not do evaluation, you don't even fool around with program changes, unless you have a commitment and unless you are communicating with and are supported by the administrator.

Not only is it necessary to bring the researcher into the institution but some top-level manager — for example, the man who is responsible for planning — has to begin to adapt himself to the results of the study, and the questions have to be asked in such a way that they can be used right along. There are ways to ask questions so that the data can be used this way. Otherwise you get faddism. You can ask the right questions and modify the program accordingly.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SEMINAR FOR CORRECTIONS

Vincent O'Leary
Ronald Vander Wiel

Mr. O'Leary:

Ron Vander Wiel and I were asked to play the role of summarizers, to react to material presented in this seminar, and to try to relate it to the field of corrections. To this end, I should like to present some data drawn from the work of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, usually referred to as the National Crime Commission. Hopefully, these data may help to relate to corrections some of the issues that the speakers have raised over the last two days. They may also help to underscore some issues that strike me as particularly important for the field.

Our first speaker pointed out the need to look at jobs and the styles of training required in line with the skills needed in those jobs. Our second speaker gave illustrations of methods which are appropriate for training in the various behavioral areas. It might be helpful in translating their remarks to the field of corrections to think about them in relation to data derived from a survey which the National Council on Crime and Delinquency made for the National Crime Commission. The data cover the year 1965, but since they make up the only nationwide picture we shall have until the Joint Commission reports, I shall refer to them as current.

Correctional Manpower and Training Needs

Table 1 shows the number of correctional personnel in the United States, grouped according to a rough classification scheme for which our chairman, Dr. Frank, can bear at least partial responsibility. This scheme divides correctional personnel into four groups according to their functions in correctional systems. While there is considerable heterogeneity among the groups, they are sufficiently distinct to permit some generalizations about the training and manpower needs in each category. The four groups are: custodians, largely made up of guards in adult institutions and group supervisors in juvenile institutions; technicians, which includes such employees as secretaries and cooks; specialists, which includes psychiatrists, psychologists, teachers, and the like; and lastly, case managers, who are mainly institutional caseworkers and probation and parole officers.

Mr. O'Leary is director of the division of research, information, and training of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Mr. Vander Wiel is associate director of the American Foundation Institute of Corrections.

Table 1

Number of Correctional Employees, by Functional Categories, 1965

Category	Number	Percentage distribution
Custodial personnel	63,184	52
Technicians	33,906	28
Specialists	6,657	6
Case managers	17,416	14
Total	121,163	100

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 95.

It will be seen that the largest group, the 63,000 custodians, make up over half of all correctional personnel today. All the custodians work in institutions.

The next largest group is the 34,000 technicians. Most of them work in institutions, although a sizable number of clerical personnel are employed in probation and parole agencies.

Most of the 6,600 specialists also work in institutions. Some, however, work in community correctional programs.

The 17,400 case managers are caseworkers and probation and parole officers. They work in both juvenile and adult institutions and community programs.

All of these figures, as I have stated, are for 1965. But they are suggestive of the magnitude of manpower requirements and the training job to be done.

Other data from the Crime Commission's report on corrections suggest the character of manpower and training needs in the years immediately ahead of us. The estimates of future manpower needs were derived by applying the "best" available standards to the number of offenders we are likely to have. This figure is a projection to 1975 of the number of offenders in 1965, holding constant the trends in population, crime rates, and sentencing practices.

Table 2

Manpower Requirements for American Corrections, 1965 and 1975, by Personnel Categories

Personnel category	Number employed, 1965	Number needed, 1965	Number needed, 1975
Custodial personnel	63,184	89,600	114,000
Technicians	33,906	60,300	81,000
Specialists	6,657	20,400	28,000
Case managers	17,416	55,000	81,000
Total	121,163	225,300	304,000

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *op. cit.*, p. 99.

The data show, for example, that we will need by 1975 something like 81,000 case managers in institutions, probation, and parole. This is four and a half times the number we had in 1965. We may be able to buy some of the services of case managers from other agencies. We may be able to have some service provided by subprofessional employees and by volunteers. But we will need to achieve that level of service.

Now, shifting away from an analysis of sheer manpower needs, let's look at some of the kinds of problems we'll have in providing the training needed by personnel we now have and those we'll need in the future. To begin with, there is a clear need to provide much more effective training at the managerial level. We have more than 17,000 people in middle-management positions in corrections today, including all kinds of supervisors and administrators.* If corrections is to improve, significant changes in practice are needed. This means particularly great demand for creative management. Coupling this need with the growing correctional population clearly shows significant need for programs which will improve the skills of correctional managers. We must discover quickly how we provide this kind of training in the United States.

In terms of specialists, it is quite doubtful that, even if we had all the money required, we would be able to get the 28,000 personnel we will shortly need in corrections. We are going to have to be much more effective in developing resources outside corrections for use in our field. We are also going to have to analyze the tasks in corrections which are now performed by the specialists, to see which can be undertaken by persons with less than full professional training. This will require extensive job analysis, a task on which I hope the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training will move forward. It will also require us to devise training programs for persons with various kinds and levels of skill to provide some of the specialists' services.

The problems in the case manager group are somewhat similar. Using current standards, we are already about 37,000 case managers short. I am not sure just how many M.S.W.'s are now employed in this country, but I am sure that we will not obtain the 81,000 case managers needed by 1975 from M.S.W. ranks. Again it appears that a significant part of the answer is to break up jobs, so that their component parts can be performed by differentially trained persons.

Importance of Central Training Organizations

For those of us who are interested in training for corrections, the tasks ahead are indeed formidable. They are not made simpler by the lack of administrative mechanisms through which correctional training can be provided. In a survey recently completed for the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes sent out questionnaires to over 1,100 institutional and community-based correctional agencies across the country. They asked the question: "Do you have an organized in-service training program?" Of the institutions which replied, 197 answered in the affirmative and 137 in the negative. Of the answers from probation and parole agencies, 359 were positive, and 448 were negative. Thus, of over 1,100 systems surveyed, more than half reported no organized in-service training program at all.

The picture is actually more dismal than this proportion indicates. Even among agencies which reported an in-service training program, there were sharp differences in quality. For example, some of the so-called training programs meet once a year.

---

* *Managers are included in each of the four functional categories of personnel discussed above.*

Not only is there a lack of training programs within agencies but there is also the problem of how to organize programs for the various agencies spread out across a state. In addition to a system of state prisons and juvenile institutions, in most states there is a jail here, a detention home there, a lone adult probation or parole officer somewhere else, and many independent probation systems for juveniles. But seldom is there a central unit which can provide, or at least plan, training for them all.

One of our reasons for meeting here was to become familiar with the program of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance through which the states are invited to apply for federal funds to develop central training organizations. The latest information I had was that such grants have been made to five states.

It seems to me we should be quite concerned about the nature of these central training organizations. In my view, their development represents one of the most critical phases in a national effort to upgrade training in corrections. How such organizations are molded and who is participating can well spell what the state programs are going to look like in the years ahead. In a real sense, the capacity and potential of these agencies are being fixed now.

This seminar has been an example of an interdisciplinary meeting. It was valuable to have persons from non-correctional settings as participants. I think their contributions made it a particularly rich meeting for all of us. The question in my mind is whether this kind of interdisciplinary ferment is going on in the training organizations now being developed across the United States. We must bring the kind of technology it represents into corrections, where it is so badly needed.

Basic Ideology of Corrections

Let us turn to another major area we have touched on during this seminar. The issue which has been referred to as the "ideology" or "strategy" problem is one of the most fundamental in the correctional field. In thinking about this issue, it is important to realize that it is a mistake to talk about and plan for corrections as if it were primarily an institutional program. The fact is that, although institutions command a considerable amount of correctional resources, they are not where the majority of adjudicated offenders are today. Only a third of such offenders are in prisons, training schools, or detention homes; two-thirds of them are in the community on probation or parole. Another considerable mistake is to forget that we are talking about a juvenile as well as an adult system.

The point I would like to make here is that our planning strategy must recognize where the offenders are located and where they should be located. Now, although some high officials in law enforcement would argue against it, the general trend in this country is for offenders to be located in the community. The Crime Commission's report supports that trend and contends that it should accelerate. It has some specific implications for training strategy.

Recently, we have seen a developing concern in corrections about the community as a target of change. The notion that the offender is a person with defects which have to be cured is giving way to the view that part of the problem lies not so much in the offender as in the social system in which he lives. If that is true, how do we start changing the world which defines to the offender what his place is in it? How are we going to train a substantial number of correctional personnel to equip them for changing communities? This is not a familiar style in corrections. It is not generally supported by the ideologies of corrections.

We have many probation and parole officers who work well with the community. But because of the lack of ideological support, these kinds of officers generally do not achieve pre-eminence in the field. The therapist is the most cherished practitioner role. The officer who can get a parolee a job is always welcome on staff, but he is rarely sent to meetings to represent the agency. We are now beginning to recognize the necessity to legitimate these kinds of skills as well as those of the therapist. This places a great deal of emphasis on a new kind of training that our community agency must have.

Another implication is in the process of goal-setting. As Carl Kludt talked about this process yesterday, goal-setting takes place in a closed system. In corrections, however, it is imperative that other kinds of agencies be represented as well. For example, police departments have considerable influence on the direction of community corrections. Anyone who has worked in the field knows that they have very significant and important controls. Courts, too, have such controls. Correctional workers need sharpened skills in joint goal-setting if they are going to involve successfully those who have important stakes in the process.

It is also important that we refuse to think of institutions in the future as they are today. We may be stuck now with huge, isolated stone and concrete prisons that go back 160 years, but the emphasis is clearly on moving institutions closer to the community. This trend will bring with it the requirement for new kinds of training, particularly for custodial officers, training in terms of relating not only to inmates but also to the community. Having moved institutions close to the community, we may need to create correctional personnel in them who can rock some boats if the community is going to be sufficiently motivated to change.

Another ideological issue which has important training implications is the developing role of corrections in the intake process. Only 10 percent of some types of crime are ever reported to the police in many areas, and 75 percent of all property offenses are never cleared by arrest. Many persons who have committed offenses never get into the correctional system and, of those arrested, many are dropped out in the screening process. Today intake decisions are too often made inadequately. Correctional personnel need to develop and apply skills to help make these judgments much more effectively. The notion of a correctional worker making his services available to a prosecutor and defense attorney when the decision is being made to prosecute or not to prosecute, is relatively new; but it is becoming more and more widely accepted. It is already common in the juvenile field.

A Strategy of Search

All of these demands on corrections have tremendous implications for training. Even more profound are the implications of the concept of differential training. Increasing evidence shows that there is no single optimum training model or perhaps organizational style. We need to know how an authoritarian regime works with some trainees, how a democratic institution works for others. This is an issue subject to testing. Only as we get some information on it can we expect training to be effective. This in turn relates to Carl Kludt's discussion of the way we work between training and research. A basic problem in corrections is that we know precious little about a number of things.

La Mar Empey uses the term "strategy of search" to describe the process of articulating what we are about and measuring to see whether we are approaching the goal we have set. As we think about evaluating programs, the need to provide continuous checking will receive increasing attention. It may well be that, for some training programs, the evaluation is not something which is done *to* the trainee, as by requiring him to fill out a questionnaire or take a test. It may well be that there are other devices or procedures in which the evaluation is made a part of the design and we build into the training program measurement of our approach to the goal we are seeking. By so doing, we make the criterion clear to the trainees so that they gauge their performance against it and work *with* the researcher in a collaborative way.

Mr. Vander Wiel:

What kind of commitments are we prepared to make? To what, and why? What is it we are going to be trying to do in corrections generally? More specifically, what are we trying to do in terms of training enterprises directed at the answers to questions as to what corrections is about. There is also the question of why we are going to do what we are going to do. The selection of styles relative to these kinds of problems is a difficult one; certain approaches are appropriate for certain kinds of populations. There is also the question of the commitment that people have relative to training generally. One of the hazards lies in what the sociologists call manifest and latent functions. There is a manifest statement: We want this for this. But as a matter of fact there is something else, or some other end, that we are seeking to serve. Sometimes these things don't go well together.

The same is true in regard to ideology, a phrase used here several times. We have to keep ideology very clearly in mind as we plan or attempt to implement training strategies of the kind that seem indicated. What are we buying into when we implement a particular kind of training program or a particular kind of training methodology? Sometimes sensitivity training, for example, can be very destructive to an organization. People come back from the training and sensitize a lot of other people, and a very uncomfortable atmosphere results. At least, this is the complaint of some people who have had to live with those who have been sensitized.

Also in terms of the commitments and ideologies, what are we avoiding as well as what are we buying into? Sometimes we use these training devices as a way of avoiding certain things; or we want to use them to alter an existing situation; or we want to use them to create. But very frequently we don't know which of these things we are doing. Are we buying into something, are we avoiding, are we altering, are we creating? What proportions of each of these things exist in any kind of training effort?

Administrators frequently complain that they don't know what is happening in a training program. Why they don't know is another question altogether.

We also have the question of the capacity of the system, both in terms of facilities and resources such as personnel, finances, knowledge, and actual capability. By way of example, take the training officer role. Everybody talks about acquiring training officers, and Southern Illinois University is training them. But how available are they going to be? Are they in fact going to be utilized when they go back to their home bases? How marketable are they going to be even within their own system? Are they going to have any place to go? Is there anything for them in this kind of enterprise? These questions have come up in a variety of contexts.

Another important point was touched on by both Carol Weiss and David Twain — the training implications of non-specific training activities. That is, the kinds of program and projects that are going on in institutions are very seldom acted on with regard to their training potential. For example, you get involved in the development of a new program, and you involve a variety of people in it. But you don't really work at the training possibilities that exist as you get people doing new kinds of things. There is a good possibility of their achieving some training benefits that are not acted on as often as possible. And the training is self-training.

One example of an area that has potential for self-training can be identified if a correctional administrator checks to see whether his staff are telling him what they think he wants to hear or what the real truth of the situation is. This is a common problem that people complain about. I don't know of too many administrators who do work on themselves, as it were, to try to develop their capacity to free up their staff to really tell them how things are going.

This whole business of change in corrections has to be related to the total social context within which it occurs. This is the point that really impressed me about Vince O'Leary's remarks. It's neither possible nor desirable to have change occur without the involvement of the other institutions in society. If nothing else, the lack of available manpower is going to insure that. We have to share with others and get help from them. All too frequently, correctional agencies have talked as though they were going to recruit all the available people. But the same thing is occurring in the welfare agencies in the community and the educational institutions. Everybody is sure that he has to have the kind of people he wants. Everybody has to have his psychiatrist, his caseworker, his psychologist. But it's just not in the picture. It isn't going to happen that way. The impact and use of other institutions in society — the legal institutions, the welfare institutions, the health institutions, the educational institutions — must be considered. But very frequently we act as though corrections is something separate and apart. The development of new models of ways in which these institutions can exploit each other still awaits us.

Who's going to define what kind of person we need for what kind of a task is a question we have dealt with on many occasions. But the changing role that Vince O'Leary is suggesting to us probably is going to mean that most of the present kinds of training may not be too helpful to us. If we get these new breeds, these new kinds of probation officers that are suggested in some of the Crime Commission reports, we set a different kind of function for them. They get less involved with the direct services and more in the community organization. We may have some problems here. The kinds of people that Howard Higman is turning loose would scare the wits out of some of the people in the city of Philadelphia. I think his trainers did a pretty good job for Colorado, New Mexico, and Utah. But in Philadelphia this would be bad news all the way.

Who is going to support the new kinds of people? I think of some new professional roles and some universities that are training people for them. Let me give you one example. In at least one part of the country, a new breed of cat is being trained in the university. He is called the Rehabilitation Counselor. He gets some psychology; he gets some of this, some of that. But he can't join any one of the professional associations. "He ain't one of ours" is their response. And he has a very difficult time trying to find some sense of identification. If we are going to create these people and then leave them without any way of saying what they are in terms of other practitioners, we have laid out a hard way for them to go.

Finally, we tend to talk in terms of "we" and "they," of parole, probation, and prison personnel, of workers with juveniles and adults, male and female. All of us who have been in probation or parole operations know how hard it is to get our people and the prison people together for meetings. The parole and probation people sit here, the prison people there. If you work very hard, you can get them to sit down and eat together, but before long they are right back with their buddies. It's a very difficult task to get the kind of dialogue we are talking about, to get interaction and planning for and with each other. If Vince O'Leary is right, this artificial division can't go on. I suspect, though, that it is very likely to continue unless we do something rather different from what we are doing now.

DISCUSSION FROM THE FLOOR

Use of expertise from outside corrections: This meeting has demonstrated the importance of taking a non-parochial approach to correctional problems. The participants included individuals from the correctional field, from universities, and from industry. As each speaker from industry made his presentation, it became increasingly apparent that industry has made tremendous progress in the development of training. Numerous training models have been tried and tested, and new ones are being developed.

Training techniques and organizational arrangements in use by industry are applicable to corrections, if correctional administrators will only have the courage to use them. Too often there is a reluctance to do so because the content of non-correctional programs does not seem applicable. This objection has no validity. Corrections is capable of giving substance to these training techniques if it will only use imagination. Industrial training techniques for the development of supervisors, managers, and executives are pertinent to corrections and need little modification. Specifically, the principles of supervision and management are extremely pertinent for corrections.

The industrial trainer is an important training source. He brings with him an extensive knowledge of differential training techniques. His effectiveness can be increased by better communication between him and corrections. We must give him an understanding of correctional problems and goals, so that he can apply the kind of training that is appropriate to the situation. If the industrial trainer is viewed as a resource person rather than simply as an instructor-participant, his true potential becomes clear.

Correctional administrators should therefore not hesitate to utilize the expertise of the industrial trainer. They must begin to recognize the similarities between industry and corrections. In both, we are dealing with large systems, where many people must be coordinated, where goals must be set and people trained to achieve them.

Coordination in the field of corrections: The Crime Commission report has made visible the multi-system nature of corrections. The lack of coordination between systems and even within systems poses a problem with no immediate solution. This has implications for training. We cannot train if the individuals within a system see their roles directed toward different goals.

Field services and institution personnel cannot continue to exist side by side as separate and distinct groups, having differentially perceived functions and objectives.

The organization of training must be directed toward solving the problem of these artificial dichotomies. Otherwise the training will only emphasize and reflect the fragmentation.

The shift in emphasis to the community makes it necessary that new roles be defined and programs developed to train persons in these roles. The discarding of the "defect" concept of the offender and the acceptance of the theory that both the offender and the community must be changed is a case in point. The implementation of the latter concept will not take place merely by virtue of its acceptance. New roles for the field agent must be formulated. The goals of the agency must be redefined, perhaps with concomitant new organizational arrangements.

In the process, corrections must recognize the importance of the community and its other social agencies. The need for coordination is clear, particularly coordination between corrections and the gatekeepers (police and prosecuting attorneys). These groups serve as significant inputs to corrections. The training of field staff must be directed toward increasing their effectiveness, so that they in turn can influence change in the community and its institutions.

The ideological gap between those who believe in the "offender defect" approach and those who accept the "offender and community change" approach can be diminished through a dialogue that uses training as a vehicle. Otherwise we will have two competing ideologies, not only between agencies but also within agencies. The fragmented nature of corrections in such an instance not only will extend to the administrative organization but will encompass the whole ideological base. Training must not therefore be organized within a closed system. It should make use of outside resources and outside participants.

ROSTER OF PARTICIPANTS

FRANK DELL'APA
Director, Corrections Project
Western Interstate Commission
for Higher Education
Boulder, Colo.

MARSHALL FELS
Organization and Manpower
Utilization Specialist
Office of Program Review
Department of Mental Hygiene
Sacramento, Calif.

WILLIAM L. FREDERICK
Director, Eastern Regional Office
Council of State Governments
New York, N. Y.

JOHN J. GOTT
Training Inspector
Department of Corrections
Wilmington, Del.

TOM V. HAGEMAN
Director of Education Service
Department of Corrections
Jefferson City, Mo.

JOHN HAZELET
Assistant Director of Penal Institutions
Topeka, Kans.

HOWARD HIGMAN
Professor of Sociology
University of Colorado
Boulder, Colo.

LEONARD F. HORAN
Director of Correctional Training
Department of Correction
Albany, N. Y.

DAVID C. JELINEK
Assistant Director
Bureau of Prisons
U. S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C.

PAUL KALIN
Director, Midwestern Regional Office
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
Homewood, Ill.

CARL B. KLUDT
Director, Community Affairs Program
American Society for Training and
Development
Los Angeles, Calif.

CHARLES W. MATTHEWS
Director, Center for the Study of Crime,
Delinquency, and Corrections
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Ill.

TULLY McCREA
Director, Western Regional Office
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
San Francisco, Calif.

ELTON K. McQUERY
Director, Western Office
Council of State Governments
San Francisco, Calif.

ALBERT MORRIS
Director, Corrections Project
New England Board of Higher Education
Winchester, Mass.

JAMES E. MURPHY
Chief, Planning and Evaluation
Bureau of Prisons
U. S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C.

VINCENT O'LEARY
Director, Division of Research,
Information, and Training
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
New York, N. Y.

KENNETH POLK
Associate Professor of Sociology
University of Oregon
Eugene, Ore.

EDWIN POWERS
Assistant Director
New England Board of Higher Education
Winchester, Mass.

ARTHUR T. PRASSE
Commissioner
Bureau of Corrections
Camp Hill, Penn.

DONALD RADEMACHER
Director, Southern Regional Office
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
Austin, Texas

LYMAN K. RANDALL
Director, Training and Development
American Airlines
New York, N. Y.

JACK ROLLOW
Associate Director for Regional Programs
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Ga.

E. PRESTON SHARP
General Secretary
American Correctional Association
Washington, D. C.

PAUL D. SHERMAN
Assistant Director
Correctional Services
Providence, R. I.

JOHN TAFT
Corrections Research and Training
Department of Institutions
Montpelier, Vt.

WILLIS THOMAS
Director, Eastern Regional Office
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
New York, N. Y.

ROBERT E. TRIMBLE
Executive Assistant to Director
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
New York, N. Y.

DAVID TWAIN
Chief, Crime and Delinquency Section
Community Research and Services
Branch
National Institute of Mental Health
Bethesda, Md.

DYRCK VAN DUYL
Chief of Manpower Development
Bureau of Prisons
U. S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C.

RONALD VANDER WIEL
Associate Director
The American Foundation
Institute of Corrections
Philadelphia, Penn.

ALBERT C. WAGNER
Director, Division of Corrections and Parole
Department of Institutions and Agencies
Trenton, N. J.

FREDERICK WARD, JR.
Director, Survey Services
National Council on Crime and
Delinquency
Austin, Tex.

CAROL H. WEISS
Bureau of Applied Social Research
Columbia University
New York, N. Y.

THE COMMISSION

James V. Bennett, *President*

E. B. Whitten
Vice-President

E. Preston Sharp
Secretary-Treasurer

Board of Directors

Milton G. Rector
Chairman

Peter P. Lejins
Vice-Chairman

James V. Bennett
Daniel Blain
Raymond Feldman
Dale Harris
Elmer H. Johnson
Richard A. McGee
Russell G. Oswald

Arnulf M. Pins
Walter C. Reckless
Howard P. Rome
Mrs. Thomas Scales
Clyde E. Sullivan
Randolph Wise
Luther Youngdahl

Officers of the Membership

Ellis C. MacDougall
Chairman

Earl H. Hanson
Vice-Chairman

THE STAFF

Garrett Heyns
Executive Director
Edward T. Magoffin, Jr.*
Controller

William T. Adams
Associate Director
Roma K. McNickle
Editor

Research Director

Robert Fosen

Task Force Directors

Robert Allen
Benjamin Frank
John Galvin

Merritt Gilman
William Meredith
Rudy Sanfilippo

Assistant Directors

Steve Bulfinch
Ralph Gutekunst
Larry Karacki
Alice Maxwell

Nick Pappas
Keith Stubblefield
Jo Wallach
Adrianne Weir

---

* *Consultant to legal education study.*

MANPOWER FOR CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION IN THE SOUTH

SOUTHERN REGIONAL EDUCATION BOARD

MANPOWER
FOR
CORRECTIONAL
REHABILITATION
IN THE
SOUTH

Report of an Institute on "Meeting Manpower Needs for
Correctional Rehabilitation in the South"
Biltmore Hotel / Atlanta, Georgia / November 14-16, 1966

Sponsored by the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Georgia; the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, Washington, D.C.; the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (Training Grant No. 621-T-66), Washington, D.C.; the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance (Grant No. 062), Washington, D. C.

CONTENTS

Introduction iii

1. Background of the Manpower Problem . . . 1

2. Trends in Correctional Rehabilitation 7

3. Needs for Manpower 13

4. The Universities 17

5. Resources and Administrative Models 31

6. University-Agency Models 37

Summary 43

Roster 46

INTRODUCTION

This report is derived essentially from the proceedings of an institute on the subject "Meeting Manpower Needs for Correctional Rehabilitation in the South" held at the Biltmore Hotel in Atlanta, Georgia, on Nov. 14-16, 1966.

Conducted by the Mental Health Unit of the Southern Regional Education Board, the institute was co-sponsored by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training and was supported by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration under Training Grant Number 621-T-66 and by the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance under Grant Number 062. We are most grateful for their support and assistance.

This institute brought together approximately 125 persons from the 15 states of the Southern region. They included state-level directors of adult and juvenile corrections, state directors of probation, state directors of vocational rehabilitation, some mental health professionals working in corrections, and faculty members from colleges and universities that offer training programs in corrections. The purposes of the institute were: to examine the need for correctional manpower in the region, to assess the present resources for training personnel to meet these needs, and to explore ways in which these needs might be met more effectively, both within the limits of present resources and of those that might be added in the future.

This report is generally organized in the same sequence as the presentations and discussion sessions at the institute. We have not made literal transcriptions of the speeches, although there are many quotations from them. Further, we have put in each chapter all of the considerations relative to its subject, regardless of whether they were offered in a formal presentation or in the group discussion sessions. We hope this will make a cohesive document that will be useful to corrections officials, rehabilitation directors and university officials alike in working out arrangements to train more professional workers for the correctional programs of the South and to upgrade the preparation of persons already working in these programs.

HAROLD L. MCPHEETERS
Associate Director for
Mental Health Training and Research
Southern Regional Education Board

1.

BACKGROUND OF THE MANPOWER PROBLEM

A background of the correctional manpower problem in the South, with projected needs for the immediate future, was presented to the conference by Frederick Ward, Jr., Southern Regional Director, National Council on Crime and Delinquency. The statistical findings were abstracted from a nation-wide survey of correction by NCCD and from other sources, including special studies made in the South by NCCD regional staff.

At the outset, Mr. Ward pointed out that we do not have ongoing statistical reporting that would provide an accurate picture of correctional needs in any state. It may be possible to know how many people are on parole, but almost nowhere do we know how many people are serving time in local lockups and jails throughout a state. Few states can tell us how many children are being detained in what kind of facilities, nor do we know the number of personnel, the costs, or the population movement through all of the correctional systems of the state. For this reason, we can look at the problem only from data based on estimates and from samples which may or may not be representative of the areas as a whole. Despite these limitations, however, some conclusions may be drawn which help us gain perspective on manpower problems.

Organization for Corrections in the South

In the 15-state* region served by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB), 30 percent of the national population is represented, but because of the numerous counties in the South, 43 percent of all jurisdictions in the United States are in this area. This increases the problem of statewide coverage of those correctional programs which are locally operated.

Correctional services can be divided roughly into nine separate functional parts. In the juvenile field: detention, probation, institutions and aftercare. In the adult field: probation, parole, jails, institutions and a special category of probation for misdemeanant offenders, which is almost completely undeveloped in the South, according to Mr. Ward.

---

*Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.

"Detention of juvenile offenders in the Southern states is primarily a local service. Only two states have any plan to provide for regional detention facilities operated by the state. With some 1,400 jurisdictions or counties in the 15 states, there are altogether only 54 detention homes," Mr. Ward said.

Juvenile probation is also largely a local service although four states, with special aftercare services, provide for probation services to primarily rural areas. Only one-third of the counties in the South is served by special juvenile probation systems. In many of the remaining two-thirds of the counties, child welfare workers have attempted to do this, but for the most part unsatisfactorily.

"Juvenile institutions are generally operated by a state agency. Five departments of welfare in the South provide juvenile institution services. Almost an equal number are under the administration of either a correctional agency or an agency for institutions, with a couple of states operating each institution under separate boards," Mr. Ward said.

Aftercare is a fast-developing youth service in the South. Nine of the 15 Southern states now have special aftercare programs. In the remaining six states, the individual local probation department, if one exists, supervises releases from training schools. In some of the states, public welfare or child welfare workers in the local community will supervise children on aftercare status, usually on a limited basis.

Misdemeanant probation is almost non-existent, with fewer than one-third of all counties in the area offering anything for offenders who are guilty of misdemeanors. (The misdemeanant referred to here is one whose offense, had it been slightly more serious, would have resulted in a penitentiary sentence. He is not the one who is guilty of child desertion or non-support, but of offenses against persons or property.) This is a vast group of people, and most of them are serving time in jails. One state, North Carolina, provides a rather comprehensive institutional service for misdemeanants.

A large percentage of all state-operated probation systems is in the South. The South has 13 state-operated probation systems and, as a region, leads the nation in this pattern of service. Only two states in this region have probation services on a local-option basis.

Nine of the systems in the South combine adult probation and parole under one administration. Four states have separate parole staffs.

"State-operated probation services, although providing very good coverage as far as the geography of the state is concerned, are somewhat inadequate in providing the quantity of service that is required by the number of people coming before the courts who might be placed on probation," Mr. Ward said.

Eight state adult correctional institutions in these 15 states call themselves "Departments of Corrections," but they have no other function than to provide the adult institutional program for the state. In most regions of the country, a department of corrections is thought of in rather broad terms with multiple functions instead of only one. In the South, however, correctional agencies tend to be fragmented, uncoordinated agencies having a rather common correctional goal, but often operated by different levels of government (city, county, and state) and often with only one or two functions to an agency. Only one state has as many as six correctional functions in one administrative agency, while one state has all its correctional functions separate with no two of them in any one department.

As a result of the fragmentation of administration and organization of correctional services, there is competition for money and personnel. Additionally, good services, medium services and poor services are sometimes found side by side in a single state, Mr. Ward said.

"In one state, there is an excellent adult probation-parole system trying to meet all the best recognized standards, while in the same state we find an inadequate juvenile probation system. In another, a good adult institutional program and a very poor juvenile aftercare program exist," he said.

One of the problems may be that these specialty services identify with their own fields of specialization rather than with the field of corrections as a whole.

The Nature of the Manpower Problem

A characteristic of the Southern region is that it tends to sentence and commit more people to institutions than other sections of the country. The national rate is 101.9 inmates per 100,000 population in adult correctional institutions, as opposed to 117.1 in the South. The rates in these different Southern states vary from 84.5 to 174.1 with only five states below the national average.

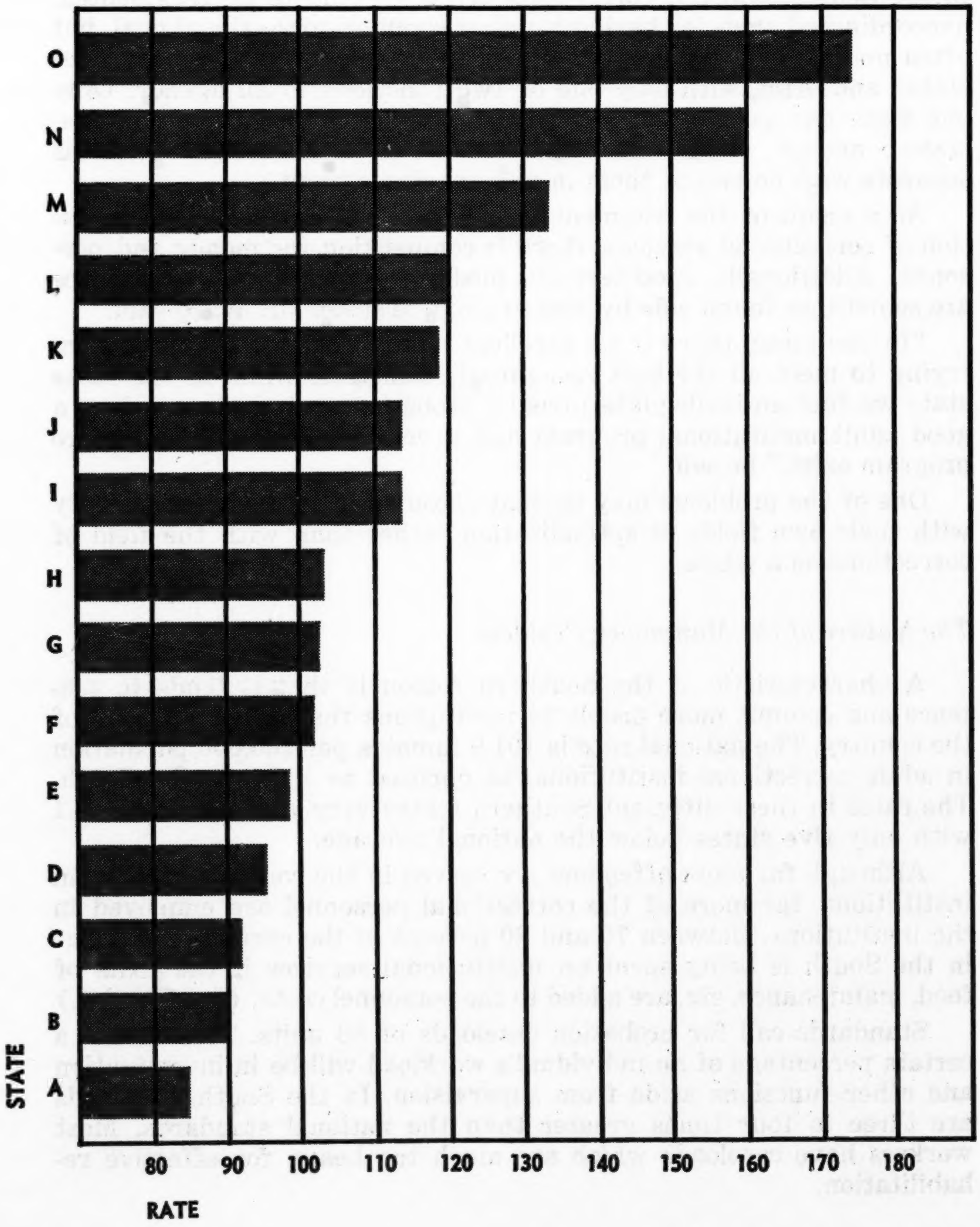
Although far more offenders are served in the community than in institutions, far more of the correctional personnel are employed in the institutions. Between 70 and 80 percent of the correctional dollar in the South is being spent on institutional services if the costs of food, maintenance, etc. are added to the personnel costs. (See Chart 1.)

Standards call for probation caseloads of 50 units. This means a certain percentage of an individual's workload will be in investigation and other functions aside from supervision. In the South, caseloads are three to four times greater than the national standards. Most workers have caseloads which are much too heavy for effective rehabilitation.

RATE OF PRISONERS CONFINED PER 100,000 ESTIMATED CIVILIAN POPULATION - 1964

UNITED STATES 101.9

SOUTHERN REGION 117.1



Juvenile institutions are planning to construct facilities for more than 3,000 beds by 1975. While some of these will replace worn-out facilities, a substantial number will be for additional inmates.

For the region, adult and juvenile institutions will increase their capacity by 21 percent so that there will be 18,750 more beds by 1975. With capital outlay modestly figured at $10,000 per bed, this will amount to about $187 million in new construction.

More than $28 million per year will be required to operate these new facilities. More than 1,150 juvenile and 2,500 adult workers, for a total of 3,650 new positions in the South, will be needed to meet standards for the increased population.

"This total needed increase of institutional workers represents more workers than there are on the payroll in all parole and probation services in the South today," Mr. Ward said.

Aftercare employs an estimated 250 people, but needs are almost double that amount, Mr. Ward said. Juvenile institutional treatment and educational staff (counselors, caseworkers, psychiatrists and psychologists) number roughly 300. Standards call for more than 700 for the number of children under care. For all state adult institutions in the South, there are only 158 treatment personnel. There should be more than 1,200, according to standards.

A great deal of inconsistency exists in institutional job specifications. Often a community and a state will require different levels of qualification for the same responsibilities. Similarly, of *adult* institions, 33 percent require only a high school education for their superintendents, but 33 percent of the *juvenile* institutions require a master's degree for their superintendents, and virtually all of them require at least a bachelor's degree. (See Chart 2.)

Another manpower problem lies in the fact that most of the systems in the Southern region require personnel to work more than 40 hours a week at low salaries. (See Chart 3.)

Most of the aftercare agencies have formal inservice training programs, but only 60 percent of the state adult institutions do.

In adult parole agencies, the inservice training program is almost always a single, annual program, while many juvenile probation agencies have weekly programs.

"New programs and creative approaches to corrections in the Southern region are few. Of the parole agencies, only 13 percent report any new or unusual programs," Mr. Ward said, "while over half of the states report innovative programs in their juvenile training schools."

CHART 1

	Offenders			*Personnel*		
Juvenile Probation	90,000	32%	71%	1,300	6%	13%
Adult Probation	65,000	23%		800	4%	
Adult Parole	31,000	11%		400	2%	
Juvenile Aftercare	15,500	5%		250	1%	
Juvenile Institutions	16,250	6%	29%	5,540	27%	87%
Adult Institutions	66,500	23%		12,000	60%	

Distribution of Offenders and Personnel by Total Numbers and Percentages

CHART 2

	No Educational Requirement Specified	High School Graduation	College Degree	Graduate Degree
Juvenile Institutions	20%	0	47%	33%
Adult Institutions	27%	33%	40%	0

Educational Qualifications Required for Superintendents of Correctional Institutions in the South

CHART 3

Institutional Personnel	*Salary Range*
Superintendents	$5,000 - $9,000
Social Workers	$5,000 - $6,000
Custodial Workers	$3,000 - $4,000
Probation and Parole Personnel	
Chief	$7,000 - $10,000
Supervisor	$6,000 - $ 8,000
Field Officer	$5,000 - $ 6,000

Annual Salary Ranges of Correctional Personnel in the South

2.

TRENDS IN CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION

Mr. Richard Grant of the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, who is executive secretary of the National Advisory Council on Correctional Manpower and Training, gave his views on present trends in correctional rehabilitation.

"What is happening in the field of American corrections today may be summed up with the word 'ferment,'" Mr. Grant said. "Ferment is stemming from the national concern over crime and delinquency."

Of equal importance, he said, is a growing dissatisfaction with the old way of doing things. The American public is beginning to recognize the fact that corrections do not correct.

"The chances that an offender will be better equipped to live responsibly when released are about one in 20. Unfortunately, the chance of his being adversely affected by his prison experience is infinitely greater, perhaps on the order of one to two," Mr. Grant said.

Public attitudes toward the offender are becoming aligned with the more progressive concepts of some correctional leaders, and the most favored correctional model today is a rehabilitative one. The objectives of a correctional system are seen now in terms of changing the attitudes, motivation, self-concept and values of the offender so that he may adjust responsibly to a rapidly changing community.

Changes in public attitudes have been brought about by the increased emphasis given crime and corrections by the Congress and the President of the United States and by newer kinds of involvement of government agencies, such as anti-poverty programs.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, the Law Enforcement and Assistance Act, the Prisoner Rehabilitation Act of 1965 and the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act of 1965—plus programs in the Department of Labor, the National Institute of Mental Health, the Welfare Administration, the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Office of Education, the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development and the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration—all have made their impact on the public's attitudes.

"There is one broad trend in the field of corrections that is worthy of special note. This is the movement toward breaking down the walls of the prison, as it were, and relating the correctional process to the community. Thus, we have seen enactment of work-release laws in several states.

"Since the Prisoner Rehabilitation Act of 1965, the Federal Bureau of Prisons has moved quickly toward implementing work-release programs for offenders under its own jurisdiction. Also we are seeing halfway houses, pre-release guidance centers and other transitional facilities coming into their own. Again, the effort is in the direction of orienting the offender as quickly as possible to the community in which he will be living," Mr. Grant said.

"There is encouraging evidence that the concepts of probation and parole are receiving increased support. Probation as a preventive and correctional function has been too restrictive in the past," he said.

Since 1961, the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (VRA) has funded 34 projects in which the public offender, both adult and juvenile, is the focus of service or study. The most extensive effort in this area has been the development, in cooperation with the Federal Bureau of Prisons, Federal Probation Service and U.S. Board of Parole, of the Series of Federal Offenders Rehabilitation Projects.

"Under conditions of tight experimental control, these projects provide intensive rehabilitative services to federal offenders under the jurisdiction of the Federal Probation Service and the Federal Bureau of Prisons. We are anxiously awaiting the results of the first year of operation to learn if there is, in fact, a measurable rehabilitative effect of concentrated service to the various categories of federal offenders," Mr. Grant said.

VRA has supported five short-term institutes in which rehabilitation, correctional and educational personnel are brought together to consider common problems and to develop strategies for cooperative programs. VRA also has been instrumental in helping to build correctional content into the curriculum of certain professional disciplines, he said.

The Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act of 1965 amended the Vocational Rehabilitation Study Act to provide project grants for a three-year study of the correctional manpower situation at all jurisdictional levels in the U.S. and to recommend ways to enhance recruitment, training and retention of qualified correctional manpower. A grant in the amount of $500,000 was made in April, 1966, to the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training to conduct a first-year study under this act.

Perhaps the most significant involvement of vocational rehabilitation in corrections, Mr. Grant said, is taking place at the grassroots level. This is the accelerating trend on the part of state vocational rehabilitation agencies to relate to their sister agencies in the field of corrections.

"There are now 36 state vocational rehabilitation agencies that have formalized cooperative agreements with correctional institutions and agencies. The number is increasing every week. There are several reasons for this—among them, an emerging awareness on the part of correctional administrators of the contributions that vocational rehabilitation can make, both inside the institution and out.

"Another factor is recognition by vocational rehabilitation people that their program fits well with the rehabilitation objectives of the correctional field," he said.

The most advanced work in correctional rehabilitation is being accomplished in the South and Southwest.

"No doubt it is more than coincidental that rehabilitation is tending to move in to make its contributions in the states where rehabilitation and treatment services have tended to be lacking, as opposed to some of the more progressive correctional systems in the North and West," Mr. Grant said.

He then discussed some of the new treatment programs in corrections that have emerged from the rehabilitative mode.

The Herstedsvester Institution in Denmark uses a form of therapeutic community to achieve rehabilitation of hardened criminals. In his every encounter with a staff member, the inmate is constantly confronted with the need to take responsibility for his own actions.

The Patuxent Institution in Maryland uses a variation of this procedure to bring about attitudinal change on the part of inmates defined by law as "defective delinquents."

In California, a project supported by the National Institute of Mental Health is comparing the effectiveness of intensive community programs, including a wide range of group and individual activities—such as psychotherapy, job and recreation programs—with those in the usual institutional program.

An institution in Washington, known as the National Training Schools, is the federal counterpart of some of the state training schools for young offenders. Since 1965, a precedent-setting experiment known as CASE (Contingencies Affecting Special Education) has been in progress there. Reduced to its simplest terms, the program involves reinforcing positive behavior on the part of the offender through cash rewards.

At the Draper Correctional Center in Alabama, there is an attempt under way to change the inmate subculture which, in most correctional institutions, has such an adverse effect on permitting change by the individual offender.

"The passage of Public Law 89-333, the new amendments to the Vocational Rehabilitation Study Act, coincided with the floodtide of national concern about making corrections something more than strict custody," Mr. Grant said.

The state-federal vocational rehabilitation program now has many new resources in its armamentarium, most of which can be used directly in the battle against crime and delinquency.

A few of these cooperative programs in the states represented at this conference are:

1. The Maryland Division of Vocational Rehabilitation's installation of a new vocational rehabilitation unit at the correctional institution in Hagerstown.
2. The Virginia state rehabilitation agency's cooperative agreements providing special vocational rehabilitation units at the Petersburg Federal Reformatory and in some of the state's training schools for young offenders.
3. Tennessee's intensive treatment unit, developed on a third-party matching basis between vocational rehabilitation and the Department of Corrections, which places a new program at the center in Jordonia.
4. North Carolina's interagency agreement, which will build vocational rehabilitation into several of the correctional units in that state.
5. Oklahoma's projects in its reformatory and penitentiary, and its current program in conjunction with juvenile courts and the school systems in Tulsa.
6. Georgia's prototype for rehabilitation programs in corrections at Alto, and its participation in the special federal offender rehabilitation program by assignment of counselors and other specialists to the Federal Correctional Institution in Atlanta and to the Federal Probation Office which serves the northern district of Georgia.
7. South Carolina's blueprint for what ultimately will be a most comprehensive vocational rehabilitation program in corrections.

Under this plan, vocational rehabilitation programs will be built into all aspects of the correctional experience, from reception and diagnosis through institutional confinement and pre-release guidance. Additionally, six special rehabilitation counselors will be assigned to work with offenders after they return to their communities.

Dr. Dill D. Beckman, director, South Carolina State Agency of Vocational Rehabilitation, discussed the South Carolina program in more detail for conferees.

"The South Carolina Vocational Rehabilitation Department, through the cooperative efforts of the Department of Corrections, has been pioneering a new approach to the public offender problem. The public offender is coming to be seen as a disabled person, much in the same manner as we might view any individual with a physical or mental disability requiring a multidimensional and interdisciplinary approach," Dr. Beckman explained.

"The first project developed there was a research and demonstration program financed by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration. In the first year and a half, our counselors demonstrated enough so that we could see a need for extensive services to the entire public offender population.

"We have established a Reception and Evaluation Center where every person admitted to the South Carolina Department of Corrections will spend his first three to five weeks. At this Reception and Evaluation Center, we obtain a complete psychological, social, medical and vocational evaluation of each inmate. We get a complete picture of his background to determine his vocational potential and to determine his general achievement level.

"In this particular center, we are expecting an average of 20 admissions per week. The rehabilitation staff will consist of two rehabilitation counselors, five vocational evaluators, two psychologists, one psychiatrist, one general practitioner, six secretaries, and other medical or legal specialists as needed. The social summaries will be done by other counselors throughout the state.

"As a result of the information obtained in the Reception and Evaluation Center, a staff meeting will be held to classify each inmate in terms of his vocational needs, educational needs, social needs, medical needs and security needs. This staff will then transfer the inmate to another institution of the Department of Corrections. Another rehabilitation staff will pick up the case at this point to provide the series of services recommended by the Reception and Evaluation Center staff. Within each of the other correctional institutions, there will be a rehabilitation staff to provide training, counseling, follow-up and some continued vocational evaluation.

"In the Youthful Offender Center, which is an institution of minimum security for those offenders ranging in age from 17 to 21, the Rehabilitation Department intends to co-sponsor the construction of a vocational training building and to staff it with approximately 30 professional people. We will then be able to provide a range of vocational training, personal adjustment, vocational evaluation and other rehabilitation services," Dr. Beckman said.

All discharged prisoners spend the last 30 days of their sentence at a pre-release center. The length of time with clients will increase when the new pre-release center is completed. At that time, all prisoners being released will stay at the center for approximately three months. During that time they will receive a debriefing-type of program to help them adjust to being back in society.

At the present time, the rehabilitation program at the pre-release center has a staff of two counselors, one social worker, one psychologist, two personal adjustment instructors and the necessary secretarial help, Dr. Beckman said.

"The program which I have outlined is a program strictly for those persons who are inmates under the custody of the South Carolina Department of Corrections," he said.

There are about 60,000 public offenders in the State of South Carolina at any given time. Most of those who are considered by the Vocational Rehabilitation Department as public offenders are either on probation or have been referred for a particular service by a court of law.

"Our department is cooperating with the South Carolina Department of Corrections in placing six counselors in strategic geographical areas throughout the state. They will not only provide follow-up services to those public offenders released from the institution and to those on the work-release program, but also provide comprehensive rehabilitation services to those clients referred to them by local parole officers, the courts and the local law enforcement divisions. Our brief experience indicates that these referral sources are not only willing, but are anxious to obtain services for the offender through the rehabilitation counselor.

"The Vocational Rehabilitation Department is unique in that it can provide and pay for the training of handicapped individuals. It can provide maintenance and transportation during the time of that training, up until the man begins receiving wages," Dr. Beckman said.

3.

NEEDS FOR MANPOWER

The conference discussed manpower needs in the field of corrections after hearing from three corrections administrators: Dr. Dill D. Beckman, director, Vocational Rehabilitation Department, South Carolina; Dr. George Beto, director, Texas Department of Corrections; and T. M. Parham, director, Georgia Department of Family and Child Services.

Conference participants agreed that complete manpower needs cannot be assessed without conceptualizing the problems and analyzing the many kinds of jobs in corrections and rehabilitation. Someone said the duties of a generalized corrections-rehabilitation worker cut across as many as seven disciplines.

Because of the shortage of trained personnel in the corrections field, it was felt by participants that a crash program is needed to produce additional trained personnel for both corrections and vocational rehabilitation.

Some participants felt that vocational rehabilitation programs could play a preventive role through a close working alliance with probation officers.

There was a feeling that innovative correctional programs will help, but much more needs to be done to meet the tremendous problems presented by low salaries, lack of know-how, inadequate facilities, poor inservice training programs, large caseloads, public stereotypes about offenders and the bad overall public image of the field.

The manpower shortage could be helped by "aide" training, which might be done through community junior colleges, and by working cooperatively with state departments of education to develop adult and vocational education programs. The following observations were made by Dr. Beckman about the various professional specialists:

***Social Workers.* A major shortage of psychiatric social workers exists throughout the country. "Since the problem of the behavioral deviate is even more complex than that of the general psychiatric patient, the social worker will need an additional period of special supervised training beyond the curriculum which is usually covered in his graduate studies."**

Rehabilitation Counselors. "The emergence of vocational rehabilitation in the treatment and training of public offenders has promise of being a new force just as important as the correction specialist or the probation and parole movement. The Rehabilitation Act gives a financial and manipulative tool which neither the correctional nor parole system has. The offender is frequently vocationally disabled every bit as much as the paraplegic, the amputee or other extremely physically disabled individuals."

Vocational Evaluators. As far as is known, there is no formal training of any type for a vocational evaluation specialist for the public offender. Such a person must be a counseling specialist with a work orientation, cognizant of the unique interrelationship of personality and social involvement. "Most vocational evaluations in the correctional field are presently made by makeshift classification sections in the prisons and are far from being adequate for a complete release-oriented training and treatment program."

Psychologists. Highly trained psychologists are needed to give each offender a complete psychological workup including an assessment of his intelligence, scholastic and vocational achievements, aptitudes, interests and personality dynamics. Such a person should not only be a clinician but have a concept of the vocational requirements of the society, have at least a master's degree, and be interested in working with public offenders in counseling as well as evaluation.

Psychiatrists. Psychiatrists are few throughout the country, and only a minute percentage of them has any special interest in the public offender. A psychiatrist serving as a member of the public offender rehabilitation team needs special training and experience with offenders, in addition to his knowledge of the more classical psychiatric difficulties. He should also be prepared to act as a consultant and teacher to other persons on the corrections team. This may be a much more effective way to use the psychiatrist than in individual therapy.

Dr. Beto's presentation was based on the assumption that corrections embraces the entire range of experiences, beginning with the offender's first brush with the law enforcement officer, continuing through his detention in the county jail or the juvenile home, his probation supervision, his incarceration in a state institution and his life as a parolee. Dr. Beto observed that rehabilitation is largely "habilitation" or the development of attitudes and skills which the offender never possessed in the first place.

"Manpower is needed in every area of law enforcement with a higher degree of professionalization on the part of law enforcement officers," Dr. Beto said.

"...The recent Supreme Court decisions in my opinion will do more to professionalize law enforcement in the United States than any formal courses or the enactment of any special state legislation in that area.... We need quantitatively qualified police officers on city, county and state levels. We need probation and parole supervisors. We need institutional personnel in the custodial area, the treatment area and the administrative area.

"Now statistics can be cited from my own state (Texas), where the correctional manpower situation is probably no better or worse than in any other Southern state. For instance, only 15.8 percent of the police departments in Texas have special juvenile police or deputies. Five hundred eighty-four additional probation officers are needed to supervise the 33,316 juveniles currently referred to the 162 officers available. Out of 254 counties, 132 have no probation services for juveniles. The department of public safety (our name for the state police) lacks 225 men in the uniformed service. The department of corrections is currently short 125 custodial officers or guards.

"It seems to me that the most important employee in a correctional institution is the custodial officer—he spend more time with the inmate than any other employee. For instance, a stupid correctional officer can undo in less than a minute what may require a psychiatrist six months or a year to achieve.

"I think if cooperative programs are developed between the institutions of higher learning and corrections in the South, these programs should emphasize the adequate training of the line correctional officer," Dr. Beto said.

He said he felt fundamental courses in the behavioral sciences were necessary for formal training programs. Advanced courses, depending on the area of specialization, could be multiplied. He cited as examples the areas of: juvenile delinquency, the dynamics of delinquent behavior, the American correctional system, police organization and administration, methods of research, social statistics, criminology theory, the legal aspects of law enforcement, the legal aspects of corrections, correctional counseling, group therapy in corrections, correctional administration, social legislation and jail administration.

Mr. Parham emphasized the need for well-qualified juvenile police officers to serve high delinquency neighborhoods.

"It is a perfectly reasonable idea that a policeman trained to understand children, to relate to them positively but firmly, and to know the resources available for helping them, could make a special contribution to the reduction of delinquent behavior. It seems to me this might be a good combination for the use of some ex-delinquents.

"We also need more of the traditional probation and parole personnel. Obviously, we can't have all personnel with graduate degrees in social work, but it is within our capability to have college-trained workers—to analyze more carefully the personal characteristics of these workers, give more attention to their caseloads, provide supervision and inservice training, and again, evaluate the results achieved.

"Detention homes could be staffed with directors who have had graduate training. Sufficient personnel could be provided to operate an educational and activity program. Detention provides a welcome security for many youngsters who realize they can't control themselves. For many youngsters, detention is the hard realization that they must bear consequences for their behavior," Mr. Parham said.

"One thing that seems obvious to us here in Georgia is that you need enough people to share the task so that no one becomes physically, emotionally and spiritually depleted. Institutions are extremely demanding. Too-long hours and too many children spell failure for the program.

"It will not be possible for us to staff completely with professionally qualified helping personnel, but we can get enough to provide leadership. These leaders must learn to work through subordinate personnel less qualified, but with good basic aptitudes," he said.

"At the institution for delinquent girls in Atlanta, the most valued employees have the least amount of formal training but a basic strength and warmth that gets through to the girls. These people could never conceptualize and develop a total institutional program, but under good leadership, they make an invaluable contribution.

"The colleges, graduate schools and medical schools must give us more help. Colleges should add faculty with interest in corrections, and begin the development of course material to provide help to field practitioners and to undergraduates who show interest in corrections.

"Graduate schools of social work should add more faculty with corrections experience and develop more field placements and courses with corrections emphases. The same should apply to training in psychology, psychiatry, chaplaincy, recreation and special education. There should be at least one school in a region offering a strong concentration in corrections and developing seminars and workshops in every phase of the work from police service to cottage parents," Mr. Parham said.

4.

THE UNIVERSITIES

Dr. G. Lester Anderson, professor of education, State University of New York at Buffalo, discussed how universities react to the challenge of training for a field such as corrections.

Following is the text of Dr. Anderson's address and a summary of the discussions on universities and the emerging professions, such as corrections:

"Anyone who looks at colleges and universities with some objectivity finds them institutions of paradox. They are, for example, at once the most conservative and the most radical of institutions. Threatening the social order at one moment, they seem at another so slow to change in the face of social demands that they completely frustrate the would-be 'mover and shaker' of established orders. This paradox is relevant to your considerations, as you are gathered together to initiate plans and programs in the field of correctional rehabilitation at the college and university level.

"What can you expect of the colleges and universities? How can you appeal to them to accept your plans? What appeals will be persuasive? What issues will they raise? What barriers might they erect to establishing your programs? What will they ask of you as you approach them? What may you expect of them? Which of your possible requests of them will they deem legitimate? Which illegitimate? If I can counsel you so that your proposed course of action will seem more feasible, your goals more readily obtainable, I gather I will have fulfilled my mission among you.

"First, be prepared to meet resistance. Resistance to change by colleges and universities, as we have already implied, is not unique to them as social organizations. Students of organizations can rarely speak definitively about them, but they can say a few things: First, all social organizations have problems.

"Second, all organizations resist change; that is, they resist change for themselves. Colleges and universities are among the most stable of institutions; the corollary is that they are more resistive to change than most. I will review several attributes of higher education which are relevant to their resistance to change and are perhaps worth reporting. Among these factors are their history, their commitment to things which are timeless rather than ephemeral, to principles rather than expediencies, to the verifiable rather than the sentimentally wishful, to the fundamental or theoretical rather than the *ad hoc* or practical.

"Finally, a further barrier to change is their process for change, which so often requires a consensus from the total body rather than the decision of a few before a change can be made.

"Universities trace not only their origins but their basic value systems back to ancient times. They, not inappropriately, invoke the names of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle as the developers of the first principles which govern the institutions we now know as colleges and universities. Socrates has given his name to the most famous of all methods of teaching, the Socratic. Plato's name will forever be associated with one of the institutions of education, namely the academy. Aristotle merely gave us our first monumental classification of knowledge, still the basis of curricular and departmental organization of colleges and universities.

"The great universities of Europe were founded in the Middle Ages. Such universities as Oxford and Cambridge, Paris, Heidelberg, and Bologna find a close affinity in their contemporary purposes and structure to their purposes and structure in their earliest years. Thus they (and almost equally their less prestigious and less ancient sister institutions), recalling these ancient traditions, are not about to become excited as contemporary pressures are brought to bear for them to change in either form or substance.

Colleges and universities, not unlike the church, emphasize the stable values, be they humanistic, social or scientific. While at times they seem to be reacting to the current scene, they claim their reactions are made in terms of fundamental principles which are conserving rather than revolutionary. Recent upheavals among universities might seem to belie this judgment. Rebellion, as some recent activities have been named, comes about because of the truly conservative nature of these institutions, their unquickness to adapt. We might also ask, how often are aggression and rebellion brought about and even justified by a seemingly fundamental and moral commitment to values of human welfare and freedom? This commitment then becomes the basic cause for action!

"The processes of governance in higher education, the locus of decision-making on such matters as curriculum, and the varieties of persons and bodies which must sanction change are final forces for conservatism in colleges and universities.

"It is interesting to study the history of universities and discover how often change does not seem to result from normal due process activities. Rather, the great surges forward seem to have been brought about by charismatic leaders. We invoke the names of academic heroes to symbolize great developments. We recall how Eliot remade Harvard, how Gillman established and built Johns Hopkins as our first graduate university, how Ezra Cornell and Andrew D. White produced and developed Cornell University, how Morgan remade Antioch. How often does it appear that change seems to come about only as a leader who is touched with grace operates outside the traditional, the legal and the rational sanctions which give authority to power—in a word, only as the leader is charismatic do we get significant change.

"Am I being pessimistic? Am I discouraging you in your hopes to develop a new program for a new service, i.e., a program to rehabilitate the person who has deviated markedly from the social norms? I hope not, and it has not been my intent.

"As a person who has administered in colleges and universities for a quarter of a century, I have had my moments of extreme impatience with the status quo. I have more than once chided, scolded, even harrassed faculty committees which seemed too slow in proposing or sanctioning change. I have wished often for the creative or innovative force or act where only the conservative force or act emerged. But then I, in my more quiet moments, realize that colleges and universities are one of the few powerful forces operating to preserve the fundamental values of what we know as Western culture and civilization. I am thankful for its conserving voice in its frequently courageous plea for the open mind, the humane insight, the just cause, the patient understanding. I am thankful to its vigilant commitment to freedom and to justice when voices of expediency would compromise these values by threats of force, by the use of force, by adopting coercive laws, by withdrawing constitutional liberties.

"Perhaps this has seemed to be both an apology for the college and university and a polemic for them. Perhaps this statement has not only seemed irrelevant to your concern, but has actually been so. We have risked this. Now let us move on to seemingly more practical matters.

"Universities and colleges do change. They do reorganize themselves so that they can meet new needs. They do authorize new programs. They even create new institutions to meet new social purposes. Let me be personal and parochial and talk a few minutes about the university I know best. Perhaps some of my experiences and the university's history have within them some lessons.

"A few months ago at the university at Buffalo, a new school was authorized and created: the School for the Health Related Professions. Its first dean is Dr. Warren Perry, a former colleague of those of you who work in rehabilitation. A friend and colleague who recently retired from the arts college deanship recalled in a conversation a few days ago that I, as an academic administrator, had proposed more than 10 years ago that the university create a College of Applied Arts and Sciences to provide a home for medical technology, occupational therapy, physical therapy and a few other orphan program waifs in the academic community. It took 10 years to bring such an organization about. But the new organization to meet an obvious need was formed.

"I, as an academic administrator, had a number of failures as I attempted to move the university into new areas of education and service. Five years ago I proposed a center for urban studies. I still expect to see it established some day—perhaps two years from now. At about the same time, I suggested an interdisciplinary study of the 'manpower' situation of the region and state as a basis for further university development. This idea is dead. As a companion to it, I outlined an elaborate study as a base for resurgent activity and what I hoped would be more relevant activity in the field of vocational education in the secondary schools and community colleges. This outline is buried in the files and will stay there. Several of us on the Buffalo campus have felt for several years that our Art School and our Departments of Music and Theatre Arts should be broken away from the College of Arts and Sciences and be established as a School of Fine Arts. This proposal, in my opinion, has no significant flaws. Such a school will perhaps be created in four or five years.

"Before his resignation, the aforementioned dean of the College of Arts and Sciences called for a fundamental reorganization of the college. A committee met frequently for a year to review the issues raised by the dean and to propose a resolution of them. At the end of a year, and after an emotional explosion on the part of a few who held that the concept of the liberal arts was being destroyed, the committee quietly sent forth a timid report. The only currently observable effects of all the efforts are that the administrators of the college have grown in number, and confusion in the administration of the college has been compounded.

"I have served for almost three years on committees—the last year and a half as chairman of one—which have had as their purpose the bringing forth of a new set of by-laws for our academic senate. The by-laws are not yet adopted. When I think of Kennedy's thousand days and what Pope John did for his church in less than three years, I ask myself serious questions about the governance of universities!

"But, in truth, my recital, while seemingly a recital of failure, is not really so. Several of the proposals will become realities, and perhaps the others deserved to be buried in the files or to die. Let us briefly review the other side of the record, the record of change. The State University of New York at Buffalo's record of recent change is an interesting one, not the least interesting aspect of which is that, until 1962, the institution had a different name, the University of Buffalo.

"Let me tell this story because it is actually one which leads to optimism. The University of Buffalo began as a medical school in 1846. It was founded by a coalition of physicians and 'public spirited' citizens, led by Millard Fillmore, who was its first chancellor and was its chancellor while he was vice-president and president of the United States. By the turn of the century, the university had added schools of dentistry, pharmacy and law. In 1914 an arts college was added, in part as a result of the Flexner report which held a medical school should be undergirded by a liberal arts program.

"By the end of World War II, the university had organized schools of business, education, social work, nursing, a graduate school and an evening college. Engineering was established as a school in 1946. In 1958 a University College was established as a home for all freshmen and sophomores, who were by its creation separated from the other colleges.

"Most dramatically, in 1962, the university then known as the University of Buffalo, an *entirely private university,* was 'merged into' the State University of New York and hence became a *completely public university.* Universities do change. Since the 'merger,' the university has established two new schools, the aforementioned School for the Health Related Professions and a School of Library Sciences. The university, in these four years since merging, has grown from 7,350 students to 11,760 students. Its full-time faculty has increased from 545 to 1,066. In 1962, it awarded 33 doctor's degrees; by the end of 1966, it will have awarded 100 doctorates. Its operating budget has increased in five years (from just before the merger to the current year) from $17,795,333 to $37,659,278.

"This is a record of rather fantastic growth and change. It occurred because it was necessary. It was necessary if the university was to meet its responsibilities as a university and to its community and its region.

"The moral is that colleges can be responsive to the demands upon them. They usually are.

"The history of higher education in the United States is a history of increasing responsiveness to social demand, of a broadening conception of the purposes of colleges and universities, of the establishment of new institutions and new forms of institutions.

"In the middle 1800's colleges and universities shifted in their purposes from a predominantly pietistic base to one of meeting the pragmatic or empirical needs of students. Historian Frederick Rudolph commented:

> The development of fraternities and the organization of intercollegiate athletics, both done by students in the face

of official opposition by college authorities, are symbolic of this change.[1]

"In 1862, as a result of intensive work by both agricultural and industrial interests, Congress enacted and Abraham Lincoln signed the landgrant college (or Morril) act. This act created a new thing: an institution of higher learning which educated for mundane occupations as well as the learned ones and which gave a new meaning to the concept of service.

"In the second half of the last century the graduate- and research-oriented university was created on this continent. Out of these institutions, which it should be freely acknowledged had their parentage in Germany, new knowledge emerged which has profoundly affected the development of this country, and which economists are now reporting has been a significant factor in the economic growth of this nation.

"From the period of World War I to the present time, a concept of universal higher education has taken shape. At approximately this period in our history, the concept has become reality. Some students of the matter have said that when half the college-age group are in colleges or like institutions, we will have achieved in pragmatic terms universal higher education. We approximately met this test this fall.

"Incidentally, about 50 million persons (students, faculty, staff) spend the bulk of their productive hours in institutions of learning—schools and colleges. This is a fourth of the nation's population. The direct cost of this enterprise is about 50 billion dollars, between six and seven percent of the gross national product.

"Education for the professions has so grown that certainly since World War II more than half the degrees awarded by colleges and universities are professional degrees. This fact is testimony to the needs of our society for professional services and to the transformation of colleges and universities into institutions in which study for the professions, broadly defined, is assuming an equal place with the academic disciplines.

"A new institution has been created in the last half century; it is the junior college or community college. It is part of higher education's response to the movement toward universal higher education and to the need for a more educated manpower—a manpower with high technical competency or special service skills, as in the health or rehabilitation professions.

"I may appear to have done an about-face; I have switched from a position that the college and university were slow to change, slow to adapt, conservative perhaps in the extreme, to a position in which I have recited a record of extended and extensive adaptation to demands made by the American social order.

---

[1] Frederick Rudolph. "Changing Patterns of Authority and Influence," in *Order and Freedom on the Campus* (Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1965).

"The moral for you who wish to develop programs in corrections, to find for them a place in colleges and universities, and to see manpower flow to meet your needs should now be clear. Colleges and universities will not automatically serve you. If, however, you can meet certain conditions, they will. If you can answer certain questions correctly, if you plot your strategies in harmony with the conditions, you will achieve what you wish. Let me now be much less general by suggesting the types of queries you will face and the types of answers you must provide.

"At the heart of the matter for colleges and universities is that substantive knowledge must undergird education for a vocation which is to be professional. As you prepare a curriculum in corrections, your academic colleagues will ask what are the disciplinary undergirdings. Preparation for service without such undergirding, in the eyes of the academic world, is 'trade school' education. Colleges and universities will have none of this. You must demonstrate in your curriculum, in your teaching procedures, in field experience, that fundamental knowledge is the base, that it is called upon, and that its existence and use make a difference for the work performed. Such demonstrations of the interrelationship of substantive knowledge must not rest upon simple assertion, upon paper outlines, upon verbalization, but upon an expertness of performance, a quality of judgment, a wisdom of adaptation, an art of practice that makes clear the relationship of knowledge to the act.

"I assume the fields of corrections and rehabilitation draw upon both the social sciences and the physical sciences. In some cases one surely must know in order to do, in other instances perhaps one must merely know in order to know about. Sociology is a basic study. What of sociology must be encompassed? Social deviancy, e.g., delinquency and criminology? Social process? Social institutions, e.g., those which educate, those which punish, those which rehabilitate? What knowledge must be studied to the point of relative mastery? For what knowledge is it enough to know that the knowledge exists and that it can be 'dug out' if it is necessary to know it?

"Other fields must be similarly explored: Psychology and psychiatry, political science and biology are, I would assume, among them.

"The undergirding knowledge must be, for the university community, an intellectual challenge and intellectually demanding. It must be more than conventional wisdom. It must be more than rudimental skills. The knowledge deemed worthy must transcend a catalog of facts. It must be conceptual, general, ultimately supporting of, or supported by, theory. For these reasons, and based on these assumptions or expectations, the college and university world talks about and asks about standards. Is the program intellectually demanding? Can only a portion of the population encompass it? Are expectation and evaluation of performance rigorous? Is selection rigorous? Or, if not, will some who are admitted fail?

"It is in this arena of undergirding knowledge and standards of performance more than any other that the university forces the issue, asks the difficult questions, is least tolerant of the fuzzy answer. It is here that the academic community is most conservative. It is here that the admission of the 'proposed program' meets its stiffest test.

"Perhaps here I should digress and give another brief homily on a fact of university life. The fact is this: The locus of power in the university is primarily in the academic disciplines. In the university, the arts college faculty is the most powerful faculty with only a few exceptions. It is not powerful only because of numbers. It is powerful because the disciplines embody the values of the university both historically and as currently sanctioned. It is powerful because it has an unequivocal commitment, an uncompromised self-mandate to protect the values of the disciplines.

"For reasons, then, of the power of the disciplines, the questions raised about their relationship to a projected area of professional service and education for it are the most important questions. And it is because of the power of the disciplines that those fields which seem to be least demanding, least related to the disciplines, more sentimental than rigorous in their statement of service or purpose, are least respected or more scorned in the academic world. Those professions which rest on the hard sciences are most secure; medicine and engineering are the best examples of elite professions which have the fewest worries in the academic world. Other factors are also related to their high status, but their base in the hard sciences, which imply rigor and high standards, are important correlates to their status.

"The college or university will ask other questions. The following are representative:

1. What assurance can we have that the person educated for your profession is a representative of the generally educated man? Will he have personal integrity? Will he be cultured? Will he take a place of leadership in civic affairs? The college and university will expect those who carry its degree to be educated as well as trained; do the programs you propose give these assurances?
2. Does the work your training provides qualify as professional? Does it demand judgment as well as skill? Is service the highest motive of those who give it? Is the work intellectually demanding? Can it be learned in apprenticeship fashion? The university, as stated before, will not teach trades.
3. Do those who give this service form a recognizable corpus? Do they perform a service not performed by others, i.e., do they perform a unique service? Is the group self-disciplinary? Do its members form an association through which they set standards of professional ethical conduct? Do they serve each other as professional associates rather than as competitors?

4. Do those who teach the profession contribute to its advancement substantively and professionally? Do they design new techniques of service? Do they relate new knowledge to improved practice? Are they themselves creators of new knowledge and new technologies? Are they more than skilled practitioners passing on their skills? Are they worthy members of the university community of scholars?
5. Is the profession one which will make its own adaptations to future demands? Does it provide a way to keep its members alert to change and capable of modifying their practice in terms of new knowledge, new skill and new technology that emerge? Do those who conduct the program within the university accept a responsibility to continue the education of those who practice after they terminate their formal training?
6. Is education in practice, through laboratory experience or field experience, through clerkship, internship or residency, truly education and not simply experience? Do those who control the university program control education in the field? Do they supervise it? Do they help the students relate practice to knowledge and theory and vice-versa? Do they help the student to conceptualize and generalize what he has experienced? Does he in the field learn the ethics of his calling, and is the self-discipline to which the professional man must subject himself inculcated?

"In essence, the university will ask that a proposed program for a new area of presumed professional service or a presumed new professional service represent fundamental needs and concerns and not expedient or self-serving ends for those who propose it.

"The ancient professions are the model. They represent a calling and not a job. They idealize service to others, not reward to self. They are jealous of their autonomy and guard it through self-discipline and by subjecting themselves to the discipline and judgment of their peers. They do not assume a static state for their field but engage in continuous study. They expect to change their practice and improve it. They accept responsibilities beyond the call of duty, both professional and civic. They expect to demonstrate the democratic virtues, but they also know they are an elite, an aristocracy in the best sense of the word. They wish to be worthy of the rewards that come to an aristocracy.

"These ancient professions, medicine, law, theology, have always been part of the university. These three professions in partnership with philosophy, which encompassed the humanistic or liberal studies and which became the 'disciplines,' have historically been the quadripartite elements of the university. They have admitted others to this company as these others strove to match the attributes of education and service which the ancient professions and the academic disciplines themselves exemplified. We can call the roll of those admitted: engineering, dentistry, nursing, business, agriculture, public administration, architecture, social welfare, teaching. Others are knocking and seeking admission—criminology, transportation, conservation, rehabilitation, in various modes, are among them. Some will meet the tests.

"I can perhaps summarize the demands the university community will make on you by repeating what I said a few years ago to the social workers:

> The university asks that the professional school play the game of higher education according to the university's rules. It asks that professional education rest on theory, or perhaps better put, upon a body of knowledge arrived at through scholarly activity. It asks that the faculties of the professional schools meet the tests of scholarly competence and that they make reasonable contribution to this body of knowledge. It asks that the practice, skill and technique which are taught present some intellectual challenge and that they require the exercise of judgment as they are practiced. In essence, the university asks that professional education be more than the transmission of an empirically derived body of knowledge and technique by persons who are themselves only professionally skillful persons. Rather, the university asks that professional education be rooted in theory and that those who teach it have scholarly as well as professional competency. This is what the university should ask, and what it typically does ask.[2]

"If you align yourself with the university and meet its test, you in turn may ask something of it, and you serve yourself and those whom you in turn expect to serve if you insist on reasonable expectations from the total university community. Again to repeat words I once spoke earlier:

> The professional school asks the university to understand that knowledge and understanding are not enough for the professional practitioner. He *must* also be a master of his craft. It also asks the university to realize that the discovery, invention and validation of new techniques or practices are also worthy of the scholar. It asks the academician to realize that his symbols and his criteria may not be the only symbols and criteria for evaluating scholarly competency. This is what the professional school asks and what it should ask. Occasionally, it asks the university to waive the requirements of scholarship in its curriculum and in its teaching. This it should not ask.[3]

"I have said very little in this statement about such 'mundane' matters as selection of staff, proper budget support, selection of students, teaching loads, faculty-student ratio, library holdings, whether or not a program can or should be accredited for extension or continuing education, or other like items. I acknowledge that these types of things sometimes seem to occupy the time of administrators and faculty as they discuss programs. I have dealt with them all in my time. I have opinions or convictions about each. I also acknowledge on occasion the disposition a university makes of these items may be of critical moment. But they are secondary; they follow after the other things I have talked about; at least that is my point of view.

"In the well-managed university, if there is a basic confidence in a program and the staff selected to manage it, this staff will have great freedom, restricted only by the institutional resources available, to make decisions on these matters. Professional schools or professional programs that operate with integrity normally have autonomy. Without integrity they are as nothing. And it has been on the essentials of program integrity that I have talked to you.

"As you meet together to discuss and plan and construct a program for correctional rehabilitation, you are concretely and explicitly taking another step forward toward a realization of the aspiration of our people to let each human being become the best he can become. The university shares this aspiration. Indeed, it is its most fundamental commitment. It will in the end support you in your endeavors."

Following Dr. Anderson's address, the role of the university and of its potential contribution was discussed by conference groups. However, what the university could do, and how, was rather nebulous. The conference agreed there must be dialogue and agreement between university and corrections authorities to establish training endeavors. It was generally understood that universities are very conservative. However, many of the conferees were optimistic and believed colleges in the South are willing to change to meet the needs of the times.

Universities could help corrections by assisting in research, providing consultation, training professionals and teachers, giving guidance in connection with inservice training programs, and bringing different concepts into the corrections field through the different disciplines. Both corrections agencies and universities should have personnel to accomplish these things cooperatively.

Corrections could help universities by providing laboratories for research, suitable places for pre-internships and post-internships for students, and an opportunity for faculty to get practical experience by working in teams with institution and agency personnel.

It was the consensus that universities would be most interested and effective in providing training at the professional level and could not be expected to furnish as much help in upgrading other workers in institutions, such as security officers and departmental foremen. Universities should help to train the personnel who will have to upgrade these other workers through inservice training.

---

[2] G. Lester Anderson, "The Professional School in the University," *Education for Social Work* (Buffalo, New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1956), p. 87.

[3] *Ibid.*

With universities primarily interested in educating professionals, other training might be explored, such as junior colleges, academies, institutes and even industry. To make use of any of these, corrections must be able to define its training needs clearly.

To appeal to universities, it was felt corrections must improve its image by emphasizing treatment rather than custodial and punitive care. This would elevate the field to professional practice and offer the universities a challenge for training.

Several suggestions were made concerning ways universities might "tool up" to turn out more trained persons:

1. Establish research and training centers in corrections and rehabilitation, especially in those locations where there are already several disciplines operating.
2. Establish teaching programs in some correctional institutions and community programs.
3. Use centers of continuing education to bring instruction to corrections workers in the local communities.
4. Extend or expand existing counselor-training programs by giving practicums and some special instruction in the public offender field.
5. Establish work-study programs in corrections and rehabilitation for the lower-level personnel, with junior colleges and four-year colleges participating.

It was suggested that universities be asked to help study the different job functions, analyze training needs, and be encouraged to participate in training programs. Although it was conceded that universities probably should concentrate on training top corrections staff members who could train others, it was also felt they could give much guidance and assistance with inservice training programs. For those wishing to enter the corrections field, universities should provide long-term training in such subjects as counseling, human development, personality theory and how to effect changes in attitudes and behavior. There was a *strong* plea for more attention to training of workers in community programs.

Dr. George Beto, in speaking to the conferees, listed three ways in which he believes universities may help corrections and law enforcement agencies:

1. "They can help us in the area of research. I don't believe that there is an area of human endeavor, outside of organized Christianity, which is more reluctant to measure what it is doing than corrections and law enforcement. I think that the colleges and universities could render corrections a distinct aid by helping us to measure the effectiveness of some of the things we do, because some of the things we do in corrections are ritualistic.

2. "We need inservice training, and the colleges and universities can not only develop programs for us, but can aid in the supervision of these programs.

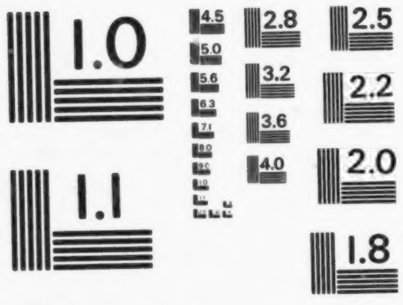
3. "Finally they can develop a program of professional training for administrators.

"I believe that the colleges and universities of the South are presented with the unique opportunity today to cooperate with all aspects of corrections in developing quantitatively and qualitatively a degree of professionalization in law enforcement and corrections unknown in America," Dr. Beto concluded.

5 OF 5

ED

038529


1.0
1.1
1.25
1.4
1.6
1.8
2.0
2.2
2.5
2.8
3.2
3.6
4.0
4.5
5.0
5.6
6.3
7.1
8.0

MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

5.

RESOURCES AND ADMINISTRATIVE MODELS

A panel composed of James E. Murphy, assistant director of corrections, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance; William T. Adams, associate director, Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training; and Louis L. Wainwright, director, Florida Division of Corrections, outlined available resources for agency-university collaboration in training, and briefly discussed administrative models which might be used to facilitate this collaboration.

"The Law Enforcement Assistance Act (LEAA) authorizes the attorney general to make grants to, or contract with, public or private non-profit agencies to improve training of personnel, advance the capabilities of law enforcement bodies, and assist in the prevention and control of crime. The act also authorizes the attorney general to conduct studies, render technical assistance, evaluate the effectiveness of programs, and disseminate knowledge gained as a result of such projects. Police, courts, corrections and other mechanisms for the prevention and control of crime are all within its scope," Mr. Murphy said.

Grants in the corrections area during the first year were heavily weighted with training projects, which included a grant to the American Correctional Association for a series of five short-term training institutes for correctional administrators—one national institute for state directors of corrections and four regional institutes (covering the nation) for wardens and superintendents of correctional institutions. The second national training program consisted of a grant to the National Council on Crime and Delinquency to conduct a series of one-week training institutes for upper and middle management probation personnel in state and local systems. These ran over a two-year period with an estimated 270 participants. These institutes are encouraging the use of new methods in probation practice and organization.

Regional grants have been made to the Southern Regional Education Board for this institute, and to the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education for continuing education seminars, summer placement of university faculty in correctional agencies, and traveling teams to bring training to agencies in remote locations. The third regional project consists of an effort by the New England Correctional Administrators Conference to survey needs and resources and develop a comprehensive plan for corrections personnel training in the New England states.

A grant has also been made to the Southern Illinois University Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections for a regional 10-week training program for institution training officers and shorter institutes for middle managers. The program for training officers will include a two-week practice teaching experience with a group of correctional officers drawn from institutions in the Midwest.

The Office of Law Enforcement Assistance has made grants available for the development of statewide inservice training programs for correctional personnel. These grants, limited to one for each state, provide $45,000-55,000 (depending on population) over a 16 to 24-month period for inservice training of staffs of state correctional agencies responsible for adult offenders. Mr. Murphy said, "Supervisors are the primary target of such training programs. The programs focus on improving the ability of supervisory staffs to function as 'change agents'.

"We hope to have involvement of both community and university resources. The applicant may be either the state correctional system, or a college or university. Regardless of who is the applicant, we expect active participation by both the state corrections system and the colleges or universities," he said.

One condition of eligibility is that all elements of the state system (institutions, probation and parole), at least on the state level, collaborate in developing a joint project plan.

"Pending findings and recommendations of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, support will not be available for development of degree programs in corrections," Mr. Murphy said.

Support is available from other agencies, however, for training in disciplines. The Vocational Rehabilitation Administration offers teaching grants to educational institutions and agencies for improvement or expansion of instructional resources. Traineeships are available in fields related to rehabilitation, such as medicine, nursing, psychology, rehabilitation counseling, social work, sociology, recreation for the handicapped and speech pathology.

Funds are also available under contracts with sponsoring agencies to conduct short-term training in technical matters pertaining to vocational rehabilitation services, including development of audio-visual aids and other teaching materials. Grants have supported joint training institutes for correctional and vocational rehabilitation staffs, Mr. Murphy said.

In discussions among conferees it was brought out that correctional agencies should strengthen their programs by greater use of funds from the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, the Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Vocational Education Act. They must establish an environment and policies which permit change.

Liberal regulations governing personnel leave for training, exchange of personnel between institutions and universities, and funds to pay student workers were suggested as provisions necessary to moving forward rapidly. It also was noted that legislators should be fully informed and involved whenever possible in order to insure the state funds needed to improve the quality of personnel and conditions for the offenders.

Regional aid may be sought from the Southern Association of Correctional Administrators. The Southern Regional Education Board might be used for consultation regarding training and research and to assist in developing such project activities as inservice training by regionwide educational television.

Resources on the state level include direct legislative appropriations for: scholarships or stipends, to be granted with specific commitments from recipients; educational leaves for corrections personnel; and inservice training programs.

Possible voluntary resources would include the National Correctional Association and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

In the State of Florida, internships at various levels are being programed in correctional institutions. A full-time resident in counseling at the Ph.D. level, several part-time interns at the master's degree level, recreational and dental interns are presently engaged in these programs. A chaplaincy internship is planned for the future.

Six classification interns majoring in corrections are paid $250 per month each summer in Florida. They receive the basic orientation courses given to all new employees, plus more intensive orientation and assignments to various institutional units, before working full-time in the classification department. After an intern has spent several weeks in the classification department, he is assigned a limited caseload and functions as a regular classification officer.

During the past three years in Texas, 30 college students have participated in a three-month summer intern program. They were given room and board, approximately $300 a month, and nine hours of college credit while working for the Department of Corrections under the supervision of the college. Many of these students continued corrections work in Texas upon completion of their studies.

The South Carolina Department of Corrections will pay for a student's graduate study in return for a year's work in the department for each year spent in school.

Special summer work programs in corrections are being used in the West for selected sophomores, juniors and seniors from various colleges. These students are given stipends for eight- to ten-week summer work-study programs—two weeks on the campus, and the remaining weeks in a correctional facility with regular seminars.

Personnel of the Florida Division of Corrections number some 1,850 at seven major institutions, one farm camp and 36 road prisons. Those employed at the major institutions are required to be high school graduates or to have completed high school equivalency requirements. Salary and promotional limitations are imposed on non-graduates. A high school education is required for promotional consideration among road prison personnel. This has been an incentive to many to complete high school requirements.

Institution-focused orientation courses, usually of two weeks' duration and consisting of some basic classwork (generally in line with the American Correctional Association's *Correctional Officers Training Guide)*, plus firearms orientation and on-the-job training, are used in Florida.

New road prison officers undergo a similar two-week orientation program. Special training classes and conferences are scheduled for road prison personnel throughout the year.

The recent spread of junior colleges in Florida has allowed employees and inmates to enroll in the same courses. On the university level, personnel at the Florida State Prison take courses at the University of Florida, and personnel at Apalachee Correctional Institution and the central office in Tallahassee are enrolled in courses at Florida State University.

A formal certificate in corrections is awarded by Florida State University after successful completion of 30 semester-hours of selected courses and a research project in corrections. An employee is reimbursed his registration fee by the Division of Corrections after he satisfactorily completes each course, Mr. Wainwright said.

In Ohio, an employee is reimbursed for up to six semester-hours of tuition for each term of work-related courses in universities, vocational and business schools. The courses must be approved in advance by an agency committee and must be satisfactorily completed by the employees on their own time.

The Florida Law Enforcement Academy in Tallahassee, sponsored by the Florida Sheriffs' Association, offers many courses, including specialized investigative techniques as well as supervisory and command-level training for all law enforcement personnel. The Florida Division of Corrections pays expenses for employees taking these courses.

An annual three-day correctional officers' seminar has been sponsored by the Kansas Peace Officers Training School for the past five years at the University of Kansas. The seminar is designed to acquaint participants with the principles of inmate supervision, security and safety measures, evaluation procedures, treatment methods and new developments in corrections. A comprehensive report of the proceedings of each seminar is published for use in institutional inservice training programs.

Florida's Tampa Bay area has a program, called "Operation Police Manpower," which may have possibilities for application to the field of corrections. The program offers ex-military policemen a chance to obtain jobs with a local police department and get an education at the same time. The new policemen receive financial aid toward an associate-of-arts degree in police administration at St. Petersburg Junior College.

Mr. Adams, formerly with the juvenile delinquency program of the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education, outlined the possibility of warden exchanges similar to faculty exchanges between universities.

Pacific State Hospital in Sonoma, Calif., has an exchange program in which persons who work in the mental retardation schools and hospitals in several states change places with persons at the hospital. A similar arrangement was suggested for corrections.

Recognizing the drastic shortage of skilled professional personnel in the isolated areas of the Western mountain states, the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education conducted a special program of faculty visits to correctional institutions, Mr. Adams said.

In this program, supported by a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, top-level professionals from university faculties spent the summer working in correctional institutions. The program had the dual advantage of assisting the staffs of the isolated facilities and contributing to the professional growth of the faculty members, Mr. Adams said.

Regional continuing education programs using university extension centers can be created to offer staff development. At a girls' school in Oregon, a series of 12 weekly seminars on group care was held. Special faculty from Washington, California, Oregon and Idaho taught in the series.

Additionally, regional teaching centers could be established in a practice agency similar to a teaching hospital. The center could serve a number of states if it had a specialty program. Stipends from state institutions could be used to send personnel to the teaching center for short-term or intensive training programs.

Training films and tape recordings can be used by departments of corrections. Closed circuit television was suggested as a substitute for agency or departmental meetings that require travel time and expense. Region-wide use of training videotapes is also a possibility.

"Under a program called 'Operation Bookshelf,' each institution in the Florida Division of Corrections is mailed a fiberboard case of books, sign-out sheets and bulletin board material on a monthly basis.

At the end of the month, each institution forwards its case of six books to another institution according to a prearranged schedule. The books eventually return to the central office library where new books are grouped and circulated," Mr. Wainwright said.

A newsletter circulated within a state to agencies or organizations allied with corrections was suggested. The purpose of such a monthly publication would be to inform the entire community of programs and activities in the correctional field.

The Institute of Government of the University of North Carolina provides research, consultation and short-course training for both agency personnel and community leaders. The institute has provided these services for both adult and juvenile correctional agencies, and expanded the scope of its services with the opening of the Training Center on Delinquency and Youth Crime in 1963. The center was established under a grant from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The institute also developed a continuing training program for all state probation workers handling youthful probationers. This short course was geared to developing impact for change within the system.

A two-year short course to train administrative and supervisory personnel of the Department of Public Welfare also was conducted under the training center grant.

Also at North Carolina, a two-year series of seminars was conducted with middle-management supervisors (sergeants, lieutenants, captains) of the prison department. It was geared to changing attitudes and encouraging the treatment approach at the caretaker levels.

A seminar training program for juvenile court judges was conducted under a training center grant, and there were institutes for community action groups.

6.

UNIVERSITY-AGENCY MODELS

Three specific models of agency-university cooperation in practice were outlined in some detail by Dr. Vernon B. Fox, professor and chairman of the Department of Criminology and Corrections, School of Social Welfare, Florida State University; J. Kerry Rice, assistant professor, Kent School of Social Work; and Dr. George Killinger, director, Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences, Sam Houston State College, Huntsville, Tex.

The first Ph.D.'s in the field of corrections in the United States were offered in 1963 at Florida State University, one of the few universities in the country with a criminalistic (crime lab) program and a law enforcement police program. The correctional internship is a non-social work internship. It includes juvenile as well as adult corrections. The program has a nationwide, even worldwide, attraction for students of correctional administration.

Under Dr. Fox's leadership, inservice training by Florida State University is offered to personnel of the state's prisons. The university also functions with the Florida Law Enforcement Academy, but the two programs are separated to maintain the university's academic focus.

The majority of students at the Kent School of Social Work in Louisville, Ky., comes from the Southern region.

Using the generic approach, Kent School exposes all students to all areas of social work. Student units have been set up in a new program of group field placements with supervision by faculty from the Kent School, rather than by the usual field instructors. Kent has three correctional placements.

The first is in the Federal Youth Center, Ashland, Ky., which is comparable to a state or federal reformatory. Four students are in this placement unit, and arrangements have been made with the Federal Bureau of Prisons to pay them. Some students receive additional grants to help cover the mileage and depreciation on their cars. One assistant professor, a regular faculty member at Kent School, supervises this placement, which was set up with a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health. He has other teaching assignments at the school, but lives in Ashland and spends two days a week there in addition to doing liaison work at the institution.

Another Kent School placement was set up with the Kentucky Department of Corrections in 1965. First-year students are in this unit at the state reformatory with one assistant professor, one faculty instructor and one field instructor who is also superintendent of the women's division.

The Kentucky Department of Corrections provides offices, secretarial services and extra money to support a student library at the institution and travel expenses for instructors and students. This experimental group is sponsored by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration.

A number of orientation field trips is made to a variety of institutions and agencies that deal with people with problems of deviancy (i.e., a penitentiary, slum areas, police squad duty).

Students from Kent also will be placed at the probation-parole office and in a juvenile court in Louisville. Students will rotate in their placement assignments.

The Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences was established at Sam Houston College, Huntsville, Tex., in 1965 under mandate of the Texas House of Representatives.

The fact that both the college and Texas Department of Corrections headquarters—plus some of its institutions—are in Huntsville provided an opportunity to utilize their resources and develop mutual programs in personnel training and the study of all phases of crime.

The administrative staffs of the two agencies developed a continuing program of statistical research, training and study in criminology, penology and juvenile delinquency. They instituted a broad program to include:

1. training for graduate and undergraduate students preparing for careers in the various correctional specialties (crime control, correctional administration, probation and parole).
2. workshops and institutes for the continued professional training of those already employed.
3. consultation and technical assistance to correctional agencies in program development, personnel training and institutional management.
4. promotion of research, demonstration projects and surveys of pertinent problems in the fields of delinquency, crime and corrections.

A description of the program, as well as class schedules, was published in the Department of Corrections' newsletter.

The Department of Sociology was reorganized to encompass a comprehensive degree-granting program, both bachelor's and master's in corrections, criminology and law enforcement, as well as a non-degree program leading to a certificate in corrections.

Teaching positions were assigned to the able faculty already in the Department of Sociology, and recruitment of additional specialized institute staff was begun. To make strong course work in criminology and corrections immediately available, the regular college faculty was augmented by part-time instructors and lecturers currently working in corrections in Texas.

The bachelor's degree program consists of 36 hours of academic course work, including an approved internship of no less than three months. The major internship program is with the Texas Department of Corrections, although it is not the only cooperating agency.

The master's program stresses original research with concurrent application of criminological and behavioral theory in a contemporary correctional setting. Graduate students have daily access to the Texas Department of Corrections' Diagnostic Center, the Medical and Psychiatric Center, the Institutional Division of Parole Supervision and institutions for youthful and adult offenders. Even the extensive data processing centers at the Texas Department of Corrections and the institute have been coordinated, and much joint reserach is being carried on by the staffs. The institute faculty assists in the formulation and execution of research.

At both the undergraduate and graduate levels, the internship is an integral part of the institute curriculum. This summer 53 institute students worked for three months in correctional agencies, chiefly the Texas Department of Corrections. They received college credit and were given careful supervision by both the institute faculty and Department of Corrections personnel.

One of the most worthwhile aspects of the Texas internship program was the extent to which the Department of Corrections opened all levels of institutional and correctional management.

A typical workday found interns engaged in such activities as: observing in the visiting room, coaching a basketball team, giving tests in the educational department, supervising the making of brooms, understudying an assistant warden. The assignments were rotated. At the Diagnostic Center, interns did everything from standing picket to conducting sociological interviews with incoming inmates. Other students at the pre-release center studied release procedures and took part in the entire pre-release program.

The internship program proved an excellent recruiting device for the Department of Corrections. Many of the college graduates knew after the internship that corrections was the field for them. Many are now full-time employees of the system. Others are working part-time while completing degree work at Sam Houston.

Selection of the interns and training schedules for the summer were made by the institute and the Department of Corrections. All interns were required to report to the institute three days prior to starting their internships. The first two days were spent at the Department of Corrections, where the students received careful instructions from Dr. George Beto and his assistants in charge of the various treatment and administrative phases of the correctional system. The interns came to campus on the third day for an orientation session with the director and faculty of the institute.

All students were asked to keep a daily record of their activities for the entire working period, and at the end of each week the students summarized their activities in reports.

It was pointed out to the student that the object of his internship was to integrate theory and practice. In order to continue his training in theory, he was required to send in weekly reports based on assigned readings.

A final report, submitted by each student during the last week of the internship, was entitled "How I Evaluate Myself as a Correctional Worker." In this report, the student was to show what he had learned, indicate how his ideas had changed during the summer and why, list his strengths and weaknesses as a practitioner, estimate his further training needs, and grade himself on his job performance. These final reports were shared by the institute and the department and were most enlightening to the administrators of both.

The creative manner in which the supervisors and employees in the Department of Corrections promoted learning opportunities for the interns was undoubtedly related to the fact that so many of the staff members are themselves students at the institute. Two wardens and several associate wardens are pursuing master's degree programs, but more than 100 department employees of all ranks and disciplines are candidates for bachelor's or master's degrees at the institute. Additional department employees are enrolled in the special certificate programs. Other students commute from metropolitan Houston and represent many other phases of corrections and law enforcement in Texas.

The director of the Department of Corrections encourages employees to take part in institute offerings in a variety of ways. Schedules are arranged to permit some class attendance during the working day. Records of completed courses become a part of each employee's personnel file and are given consideration along with other factors in promotions.

The institute has cooperated by arranging late afternoon and night classes four evenings a week to benefit the working students, and by offering a wide range of course work oriented to their needs.

"While the institute was placed at Sam Houston because of its proximity to the institutions of the Texas Department of Corrections, the institute program has had such acceptance that we have had to move into concentrations not only for a career in institutional corrections but also for law enforcement, juvenile counseling and juvenile corrections. Still other concentrations place special emphasis on adult corrections, probation and parole. The example set by the institute and Department of Corrections has given impetus to similar, though as yet less extensive, cooperation with the other agencies," Dr. Killinger said.

Common to all of these programs, and given to all students, are certain basic courses, such as Understanding Human Behavior, Dynamics of Delinquent Behavior, and Correctional Treatment and Custody. Other suggested courses in the various concentrations include Techniques of Social Welfare, Law of Criminal Corrections, Police Problems and Practices, Penology, The American Correctional System, Probation and Parole, Social Stratification, Sociology of Child Development, Legal Aspects of Corrections, Prediction of Criminal Behavior, Social Sources of Deviant Behavior, Problems of International Crime Control, Specialized Problems in Police Technology, Research Problems in Police Science, Education and Resocialization in Corrections, Jail Administration, Social Legislation, Case Work Techniques in Corrections, and Techniques of Interviewing and Interrogation.

"This past summer we provided two interagency workshops designed to furnish continued professional training to those already employed in correctional programs throughout Texas. Surveys by the institute showed that while the basic educational level of correctional practitioners in Texas is unusually high, there is great need for specialized training in order to make these workers more efficient in their present jobs," Dr. Killinger said.

"Our first workshops were so successful that we plan to offer them each summer on the Sam Houston campus, as well as at regular intervals in other areas of the state.

"For example, at the Gatesville Training School, there are 286 employees presently needing and seeking on-site instruction and training. Additional requests have been received from agencies in such diverse areas as Houston, Dallas, Austin, Beaumont, Wichita Falls and El Paso," he said.

A faculty member from the institute commutes each Friday to Dallas, where 38 graduate students from the juvenile court staff are receiving graduate instruction.

"We see ourselves more and more involved in taking information to the practitioner, since in most cases it is impossible for him to leave his job for any considerable period," Dr. Killinger said.

"Courses offered at these metropolitan branches are not considered as extension courses, but are the same on-campus, in-residence courses. They are taught by our regular institute staff, with no dilution of material and no relaxation of standards. Library facilities available to the students in some of the metropolitan 'branch' classes match the present library resources on the Sam Houston State College campus.

"This past summer our two interagency workshops were composed of students from many different Texas correctional agencies, as well as students from welfare departments, visiting teachers, Big Brother organizations, the Office of Economic Opportunity and the Job Corps."

The interagency workshops focused on introducing participants to the body of knowledge that is developing in law enforcement and corrections. Material presented in the workshops covered the areas of Understanding Human Behavior, Criminological Theory, Legal Aspects of Law Enforcement and Corrections, Correctional Counseling, and Measurements and Evaluation. Programs and classes were held five hours a day for 10 days. Sessions were a combination of lectures by members of the institute faculty and open discussions. Evenings were devoted to showing training films and studying tapes which demonstrated counseling problems and techniques. A highlight of the program was "Institution Day," during which the groups toured units of the Texas Department of Corrections. These included a maximum security unit, a unit for young first offenders, the women's institution and the Diagnostic Center.

During the first year of operation of the institute, the director and staff have served as consultants and speakers to various correctional, law enforcement and welfare agencies. Consultative services are being given to the Governor's Commission on Law Enforcement Officers Standards and Education, the Harris County Probation Department, the Texas Department of Corrections Inservice Training Program, the Texas Woman's Prison Pre-Release Program, and the Texas Citizens' Committee on Crime and Delinquency.

"Employee libraries have been established at each unit of the Texas Department of Corrections, with selections being made by the institute. The director of the institute is the regular Monday morning instructor in the pre-service training program of the department," Dr. Killinger said.

"University training programs can provide basic theory in corrections, but only with a practical, experimental correctional situation, vigorously supported and coordinated with a department of corrections, can the academic institution hope to supply the body of knowledge and experience that will produce a truly professional worker."

SUMMARY

In summing up the three-day conference, Dr. Carl A. Bramlette, assistant director for mental health training and research, Southern Regional Education Board, listed five prevailing themes:

1. Ferment is occurring in the people-oriented services across the nation. The undereducated, the economically and socially deprived are demanding services, and they are demanding that agencies hear them. The concept of restricted referrals, restricted admissions and restricted programs is being rejected.

"Whether you are in education, health, welfare or corrections, the demand for your service will come from your clients. I think particularly this will occur in corrections as corrections moves from a custodial to a rehabilitative program. I think you are opening yourself to new client demands," Dr. Bramlette said.

2. Manpower does not exist where expected. Studies in many fields show that existing training programs and existing concepts of professions are barely sufficient to sustain the status quo, let alone meet future needs. Professional roles are changing, and the demand is to look at professions, jobs, employees and potential employees in different ways. Corrections may have to come up with totally new answers to manpower problems.

"Fully professional manpower does not exist, and it is not going to exist in our present scheme of things. We have to look at the whole range of educational levels—the high school graduate, B.A., M.A., A.B.D. ('*all but degree*'), Ph.D. and post-Ph.D. Particular attention should be paid to the '*all but degree*'. This is a resource often overlooked. Another exciting idea is the possibility of using our clients as manpower. If carefully selected, such people, who have learned through the program itself, can perhaps perform a real service," Dr. Bramlette said.

3. The task is complex. Some university people, as well as vocational rehabilitation people who have not been much involved with corrections, are overwhelmed with the total task of corrections.

"The tendency is to pick out our segment of program and thereby close ourselves off from the process itself. We develop restricted programs which make it difficult for easy transition from one stage of the process to the other to take place," Dr. Bramlette said.

4. Although much is known in the field of corrections, this knowledge is not being used. A lot is yet to be learned. How can existing knowledge be given to those who need it?

"In considering inservice training, staff development, pre-service training and continued education for all employees, we recognized the need to make contact with the universities.

"The universities will be interested in the research possibilities of your program and the discovery of knowledge that can take place. It is an exciting idea that you administer perhaps as good a human laboratory possibility as anybody in the country. You can offer this laboratory to the university as a training experience in research," Dr. Bramlette said.

It was suggested that faculty members be brought into the correctional system for their own education.

5. The corrections program will directly reflect those in the field and their basic commitments.

"If your commitment is really to do something about manpower, then I believe it will reflect itself in your attitudes toward the development of people. If you approach your institution, not from a custodial standpoint or a rehabilitative standpoint, but from a human development standpoint you can create a 'learning community.' "

Special recommendations and suggestions that came from the conference included:

1. Contiguous states can do more to share their resources, particularly in terms of training resources.

2. Discussion and action groups can continue in individual states and involve other people and agencies.

3. SREB can keep the governors informed through the Southern Governors Conference on the manpower needs in this area.

4. A regional training program in corrections, and counseling as it deals with corrections, could be developed with the assistance of SREB.

5. A newsletter might keep the line of communication open.

6. A post-conference meeting in six months would help to evaluate the effectiveness of this conference and to plan future efforts.

7. Individuals could become more informed about the possibilities for federal financial support of program and training activities.

8. The organization of a pilot training center for correctional rehabilitation staffs should be considered.

9. A smaller conference might involve university deans and presidents and top correctional administrators.

ROSTER

MEETING MANPOWER NEEDS FOR CORRECTIONAL REHABILITATION IN THE SOUTH

Biltmore Hotel
November 14-16, 1966

Mr. William T. Adams
Associate Director
Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training
Washington, D.C.

Dr. G. Lester Anderson
Professor of Education
State University of New York at Buffalo
Buffalo, New York

Dr. Vera K. Andreasen
Department of Sociology
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Dr. Wayne Antenen
Coordinator of Counseling Practicum
College of Education
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida

Mr. John W. Arrington
Executive Assistant
Vocational Rehabilitation Division
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Dr. Charles D. Auvenshine
Director of Rehabilitation and Counseling
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky

Mr. David D. Bachman
Florida Division of Corrections
Tallahassee, Florida

Mr. Kenneth Bailey
Assistant Director of Prisons
North Carolina Prison Department
Raleigh, North Carolina

Mr. James A. Ball, III
Florida Division of Corrections
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Ted Baumberger
Supervisor
Department of State Homes and Schools
Department of Public Welfare
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Mr. Lester Beck
Vocational Rehabilitation Division
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Mr. Dill D. Beckman
Director
Vocational Rehabilitation Department
Columbia, South Carolina

Mr. J. Berger
Acting Director
Board of Pardons and Paroles
State of Texas Division of Parole Supervision
Austin, Texas

Mr. Doyle Best
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Regional Representative
Region VIII
Dallas, Texas

Mr. George Beto
Director
Texas Department of Corrections
Huntsville, Alabama

Mr. John Boone
Southern Regional Council
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Daniel D. Bosis
Consultant
Child Psychiatrist Center
for Children and Youth
National Institute of Mental
Health
Bethesda, Maryland

Dr. Carl A. Bramlette
Assistant Director of Mental
Health
Southern Regional Education
Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Helen G. Burr
Chairman
Department of Speech Pathology
and Audiology
The University of Virginia
Charlottesville, Virginia

Mr. Glenn Calmes
Assistant Regional Representative
Region IV
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Atlanta, Georgia

Miss Mary Calvert
Professor of Anthropology and
Sociology
Barnwell College
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

Mr. Watt Carter
Vocational and Rehabilitation
Director
Mississippi State Penitentiary
Parchman, Mississippi

Mr. Richard A. Chappell
Assistant Professor
University of Georgia
Institute of Government
Athens, Georgia

Dr. Douglas Cluck
Director, Educational Services
Department of Corrections
Nashville, Tennessee

Dr. A. Beatrix Cobb
Director, Rehabilitation Counselor
Training Program
Department of Psychology
School of Arts and Sciences
Texas Technological College
Lubbock, Texas

Mr. Ben F. Coffman
Assistant Superintendent for
Rehabilitation
Bureau of Rehabilitation Services
Frankfort, Kentucky

Mr. George O. Compton
Superintendent
South Carolina School for
Girls
Columbia, South Carolina

Mr. Louis G. Corenblith
Assistant Director
Division of Vocational
Rehabilitation
Texas Education Agency
Austin, Texas

Col. Weldon W. Cox
Deputy Commissioner
Department of Correction
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. William A. Crump
State Department of Education
Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Augustus D'Aloise
Assistant Professor
University of Oklahoma
Yukon, Oklahoma

Dr. Charles Dean
University of Kentucky
Department of Sociology
Lexington, Kentucky

Mr. George H. Deer
Assistant Personnel Officer
Louisiana Department of Institutions
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Mr. Arthur G. Dozier
Director
Division of Child Training
Schools
Marianna, Florida

Mr. Richard Drew
Vocational Rehabilitation
Georgia Industrial Institute
Alto, Georgia

Mr. Warren A. Ellis
Director of Cottage Life
North Carolina Board of
Juvenile Corrections
Raleigh, North Carolina

Dr. James G. Foshee
Professor and Head
Special Education and
Rehabilitation
School of Education
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Vernon B. Fox
Professor and Chairman
Department of Criminology and
Corrections
School of Social Welfare
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida

Mr. Thorold S. Funk
Division of Vocational
Rehabilitation
Charleston, West Virginia

Mr. John Galvin
Public Relations
Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Gerald Globetti
Assistant Professor
Department of Sociology
Mississippi State University
Jackson, Mississippi

Mr. R. Lee Goodner, Jr.
Supervisor, Counseling and Guidance
Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. Richard A. Grant
Executive Secretary
National Advisory Council on
Correctional Manpower and
Training
Vocational Rehabilitation
Washington, D.C.

Mr. Lowell E. Green
Director
Vocational Rehabilitation Division
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Dr. Manuel Guerrero
Staff Psychiatrist
Florida State Prison
Raiford, Florida

Dr. John Hamilton
Superintendent
Clifton T. Perkins Hospital
Jessups, Maryland

Mr. Dale Hanks
Assistant Director
State Department of Vocational
Rehabilitation
Division of Youth Services
Richmond, Virginia

Dr. Chester W. Hartwig
Professor of Sociology
Auburn University
Auburn, Alabama

Dr. Thomas Hatfield
President
John Tyler Community College
Chester, Virginia

Mr. C.B. Hayslett
Assistant Commissioner
Youth Services
Department of Corrections
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. L.E. Higgins
Executive Director
Louisiana Youth Commission
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Dr. William M. Holbert
Program Coordinator
University of Tennessee
College of Education
Knoxville, Tennessee

Dean William Jackson
School of Social Work
Atlanta University
Atlanta, Georgia

Mr. David Jelinek
Director of Personnel
U.S. Department of Jestice
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
Washington, D.C.

Mr. L.W. Johnson
Secretary - Member
State Board of Public Affairs
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Mrs. Jean Jones
Chairman
Student Advising Program
Richmond Professional Institute
School of Social Work
Richmond, Virginia

Dr. Arthur Kandel
Chief Psychologist
Patuxent Institution
Jessups, Maryland

Dr. William Katz
Professor Division of Education
West Virginia University
Morgantown, West Virginia

Professor Hazel B. Kerper
Sam Houston State College
Institute of Contemporary
Corrections and the
Behavioral Sciences
Huntsville, Texas

Dr. George Killinger
Director of the Institute of
Contemporary Corrections and
Behavioral Sciences
Sam Houston State College
Huntsville, Texas
Mr. Cornelius A. Kooiman
Director
School of Occupational Therapy
Richmond Professional Institute
Richmond, Virginia

Mr. Robert E. Kuhn
Chairman
Board of Probation and Parole
Charleston, West Virginia

Professor Charles Law
Department of Adult Education
North Carolina State University
Raleigh, North Carolina

Dr. Richard E. Lawrence
Assistant Director
University of Maryland
College of Education
College Park, Maryland

Mr. Edward MacClellan
Director of Youth Services
Alachua County Sheriff's
Department
Gainesville, Florida

Mr. Ellis C. MacDougall
Director
Department of Corrections
Columbia, South Carolina

Mr. Travis McCharen
Director
Vocational Rehabilitation
Division
Jackson, Mississippi

Dr. A.G. McCormick
Associate Director of Training
Arkansas Rehabilitation Research
and Training Center
Hot Springs, Arkansas

Dr. John McKee
Rehabilitation Research Foundation
Elmore, Alabama

Mr. Shelton W. McLelland
Region IV
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Harold L. McPheeters
Associate Director of Mental Health
and Training Research
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Mr. Blaine M. Madison
Commissioner of Juvenile Correction
North Carolina Board of Juvenile
Correction
Raleigh, North Carolina

Dr. Robert Masson
Chairman, Department of
Rehabilitation and Counseling
College of Human Resources
West Virginia University
Morgantown, West Virginia

Mr. Richard L. Matney
Training Officer
Division of Corrections
Department of Welfare and
Institutions
Richmond, Virginia

Mr. Robert W. McColley
Assistant Superintendent
Maryland Department of
Corrections
Hagerstown, Maryland

Mr. Leon Meenach
Director of Services
Kentucky Department of Education
Bureau of Rehabilitation Services
Frankfort, Kentucky

Mr. William L. Megathlin
The University of Georgia
College of Education
Vocational Rehabilitation
Counselor Training Program
Athens, Georgia

Mr. William Meredith
Joint Commission on Correctional
Manpower and Training
Washington, D.C.

Mr. C.R. Minor
Director
Division of Youth Services
State Department of Welfare and
Institutions
Richmond, Virginia

Dr. James M. Mullendore
Professor
College of Human Resources
University of West Virginia
Morgantown, West Virginia

Mr. James E. Murphy
Program Manager - Corrections
U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
Washington, D.C.

Mr. Claude A. Myer
Assistant Director
Division of Vocational
Rehabilitation
State Department of Public
Instruction
Raleigh, North Carolina

Mr. Merl Myers
Assistant Director
Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
State Department of Education
Baltimore, Maryland

Mr. Charles L. Newman
Director
The Pennsylvania State University
College of Liberal Arts
University Park, Pennsylvania

Mr. Frank J. Nuzum
Deputy Director for Adult Services
State Commissioner of Public
Institutions
Clarksburg, West Virginia

Mr. Ben Overstreet
Institute of Law and Government
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Mr. T.M. "Jim" Parham, Jr.
Director
Georgia Department of Family
and Children Services
Division of Children and Youth
Atlanta, Georgia

Mr. Andrew Parker
Director, Intensive Treatment Center
Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. Vernon L. Pepersack
Commissioner
State Department of Corrections
Baltimore, Maryland

Mr. James W. Phipps
Chief, Training Branch
Division of Juvenile Delinquency Service
U.S. Children's Bureau
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Thomas L. Porter
Assistant Professor
Department of Counselor Education
College of Education
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia

Mr. O.E. Reece
Coordinator, Vocational Rehabilitation
Nashville, Tennessee

Mr. Corbett Reedy
Regional Representative
Region III
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Charlottesville, Virginia

Miss Amy Reynolds
Secretary
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Mr. J. Kerry Rice
Kent School of Social Work
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

Mr. Theodore Riegel
The Yarbrough House
Milledgeville State Hospital
Milledgeville, Georgia

Dr. R.M. Roelfs
Assistant Dean
University of Arkansas
College of Education
Fayetteville, Arkansas

Mr. William H. Ruff, III
Personnel Officer
Louisiana Department of Institutions
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Mr. Roy W. Russell
Commissioner
Florida Probation and Parole Commission
Tallahassee, Florida

Miss Margaret Ryan
Assistant Chief
Division of Training
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Washington, D.C.

Dr. John C. Scanlon
Deputy Director
Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development
U.S. Children's Bureau
Washington, D.C.

Mr. Joe Scarbrough
Vocational Rehabilitation
Georgia Industrial Institute
Alto, Georgia

Mr. Louis Schubert
Regional Representative
Region IV
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Atlanta, Georgia

Miss Donna Seay
Rehabilitation Research Foundation
Elmore, Alabama

Dr. H. Douglas Sessoms
Chairman, Recrestion Curriculum
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
Graduate School
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Dr. Saleem A. Shah
Consultant
Crime and Delinquency Section
Community Research and Services Branch
National Institute of Mental Health
Bethesda, Maryland

Mr. Alan Shields
Associate Professor of Sociology
Tallahassee, Florida

Mr. Rupert B. Sims
Supervisor of Facility Services
State of Arkansas Department of Education
Little Rock Arkansas

Mr. Thomas J. Skelley
Chief, Division of Disability Services
Vocational Rehabilitation Administration
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Wade O. Stalnaker
Director
School of Rehabilitation Counseling
Richmond Professional Institute
Richmond, Virginia

Dr. Robert L. Stewart
Anthropology and Sociology Department
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

Dr. Thomas J. Sweeney
Director, Guidance Center
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

Dr. Bruce Thomason
Assistant Dean and Head
Rehabilitation Counseling Department
University of Florida
J. Hillis Miller Health Center
Gainesville, Florida

Mr. William F. Twomey
State Supervisor
Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Rufus Vaughn
Assistant Professor of Psychiatry
J. Hillis Miller Medical Center
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida

Mr. Louie L. Wainwright
Director
Florida Division of Corrections
Tallahassee, Florida

Mr. Fred Ward
Regional Director
National Council on Crime and Delinquency
Southern Regional Office
Austin, Texas

Mr. L.E. Walters
State Board of Corrections
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Doral N. West
Coordinator, Rehabilitation Counseling
College of Education
University, Alabama

Dr. Harry B. Williams
Assistant Director for Mental Health
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Mrs. Judy Williams
Secretary
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. Melvin J. Williams
Head, Department of Sociology
East Carolina College
Greenville, North Carolina

Mr. J.W. Wingo
Acting Commissioner
Kentucky Department of Corrections
Frankfort, Kentucky

Mr. O.F. Wise
Director, Vocational Rehabilitation
Montgomery, Alabama

Dr. Wilson Woodhouse
Supervisor, Adult Basic Education
Department of Community Colleges
State Board of Education
Raleigh, North Carolina

Mr. Marvin R. Wooten
Chairman
North Carolina Board of Parole
Raleigh, North Carolina

Mr. Adam R. Zawada
State Supervisor, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
Tallahassee, Florida

RECENT LEAA PUBLICATIONS

General

Third Annual Report to the President and the Congress on Activities under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 (April 1, 1968).

Project Reports and Dissemination Documents

Grant #007	From Campus to Corrections: Institutes to Attract College Students to Correctional Services
Grants #013, #140 and #66-3	Crime Laboratories - Three Study Reports
Grants #016, #053 and #087	Statewide Police Command and Supervisory Training--Three Demonstration Projects .New Jersey Mobile Training Units .North Carolina Police Management Institute .Arkansas Regional Courses for Police Supervisors
Grant #017	State Police Systems
Grant #020	The APCO Project--A National Training Manual and Procedural Guide for Police and Public Safety Radio Communications Personnel
Grant #198 (S.022)	Project Sky Knight: A Demonstration in Aerial Surveillance and Crime Control
Grant #085	Harvard Student District Attorneys Project
Grant #153	Reports, Records and Communications in the Boston Police Department: A System Improvement Study
Contract #67-22	Police Management Training in Eight Southern States
Grant #178	Model In-Service Training Program for Correctional Personnel: A University of Georgia Project
Grants #110 and #239 (S.070)	Governors' Planning Committees in Criminal Administration Two Study Projects .Iowa Crime Commission .State of West Virginia--Governor's Committee on Crime, Delinquency and Corrections
Grant #052	The Cincinnati Police-Juvenile Attitude Project
Contract #67-28	Police Science Degree Programs-A Conference Report

★ U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1968 O—315-912

RECENT LEAA PUBLICATIONS

Article Reprints on LEAA Projects

Grant #006	Interrogation and the Criminal Process
Grant #035	The NDAA/LEAA Project--Training Program for Prosecuting Attorneys
Grant #037	Big Help for Small Offenders (The Reader's Digest, April 1968)
Grant #039	Computer Mapping - A New Technique in Crime Analysis
Grant #053	Police Executive Development in North Carolina
Grant #071	A Communication System for the Washington, D.C. Metropolitan Police Department
Grant #127 #162 and #165	The OLEA Fellowship Program
Grant #157	Training Police as Specialists in Family Crisis Intervention: A Community Psychology Action Program
Grant #168	SIMBAD (University of Southern California project to develop a mathematical model of the probation process)
Grant #198 (S.022)	Sky Knight, The Heavenly Prowl Car (The Reader's Digest, April 1968)
Grant #241	Correctional Staff Training Institutes
Contracts #66-2 and #66-11	Surveys of Population Samples for Estimating Crime Incidence

* * *

Copies of LEAA publications are available on request from the Dissemination Office, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. 20537